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ABSTRACT

National History Day, a year-long educational program, fosters academic achievement and intellectual growth. In addition to acquiring historical knowledge and perspective while developing entries and competing in a series of district, state, and national contests, students develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills that help them manage and use information. National History Day has two divisions: (1) junior division (grades 6-8) and (2) senior division (grades 9-12). Students can enter one of seven categories and are encouraged to choose any topic in local, national, or world history and investigate its historical significance and relationship to the theme by conducting extensive primary and secondary research. This booklet contains the following historical materials: "What Is National History Day"; "Teaching about Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History"; "Theme Narrative: Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History"; "Resources from the National Archives and Records Administration"; "Sample Topics"; "Library of Congress On-Line Resources"; "Bibliography"; "A Research Roadmap for Your History Day Topic" (J. Vandenberg-Daves); "Women and Reform Movements in the United States, 1820-1920: A Guide to Sources"; "Political Revolutions of the 20th Century: A Guide to Sources"; "C-SPAN in the Classroom"; "Analyzing and Using Statistics To Study the Past"; "Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre: A Religious Reaction in 16th Century France" (M. McGann); "African American Soldiers and the Revolutionary War: Sons of Liberty?"; "The 'Revolution' of 1800" (J. Riley); "Reformers and Child Labor in the Early 20th Century" (L. DeLoach); "China's Entry into the Korean War: Conflicting Accounts"; "Campaigns of Truth: Propaganda during the Cold War"; "'You Say You Want a Revolution': The Reaction of Beatles' Fans to Immigration Law" (L. A. Potter); and "Echoes from the Wall: Conflict on the Home Front during the Vietnam War." (BT)

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Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History. National History Day 2002.

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Cathy Gorn, Editor

National History Day, College Park, MD.

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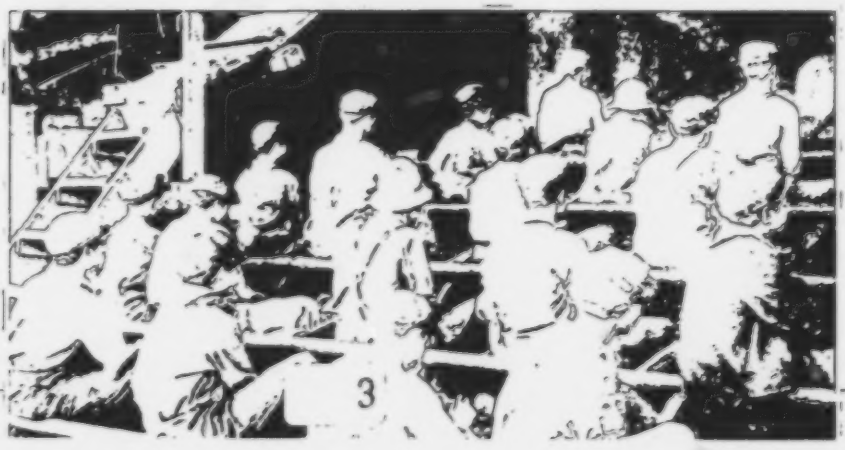
REVOLUTION, REACTION, REFORM IN HISTORY

National History Day 2002



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NATIONAL HISTORY DAY 2002

Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History
National History Day Curriculum Book 2002

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PROGRAM ACCREDITATION
The American Association for State and Local History, the American Historical Association, the Federation of State Humanities Councils, the National Council for the Social Studies, and the Organization of American Historians endorse National History Day. The National Association of Secondary School Principals has placed National History Day on the NASSP National Advisory List of Contests and Activities for 2001-2002.

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WHAT IS National History Day?

National History Day is an exciting way for students to study and learn about historical issues, ideas, people and events. This year-long educational program fosters academic achievement and intellectual growth. In addition to acquiring useful historical knowledge and perspective while developing entries and competing in a series of district, state and national contests, students develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills that will help them manage and use information now and in the future.

The program begins at the start of the school year. Curriculum and contest materials are distributed to History Day coordinators and teachers throughout the country. The theme for 2002 is "Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History."

In many states and districts, teachers are invited to workshops where they share ideas about how the year's theme can be most effectively addressed and also receive bibliographies and other resources. Teachers then introduce the program to their students who, in turn, choose topics and begin their research.

Students are encouraged to choose any topic in local, national or world history and investigate its historical significance and relationship to the theme by conducting extensive primary and secondary research. After analyzing and interpreting their information, students present their findings in papers, exhibits, performances, and documentaries that are evaluated by historians and educators.

National History Day has two divisions: the junior division (grades 6-8) and the senior division (grades 9-12). Some states also sponsor a History Day contest for students in grades 4 and 5.

Students can enter one of the following seven categories: individual paper, individual or group exhibit (similar to a museum exhibit), individual or group performance (a dramatic portrayal of the topic), individual or group documentary (usually a slide show, a video, or a non-interactive computer program). Groups may consist of two to five students.

District History Day contests are usually held in February or March. District winners then prepare for and compete at the state contests, usually held in late April or early May. The top two finishers in each category at the state contest become eligible to advance to the national contest held in June at the University of Maryland at College Park.

TEACHING ABOUT
Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History

"I hold it that a little rebellion now and then is a good thing, and as necessary in the political world as storms in the physical." So wrote Thomas Jefferson to James Madison early in 1787, after hearing of Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts. Ironically, many of Jefferson's fellow revolutionaries who had fought for America's independence were not nearly so comfortable with the idea of revolutions or rebellions. They reacted to Shays' Rebellion by reforming the national government, throwing out the constitution which they had written in the midst of the American Revolution and replacing it with an entirely new constitution which created a much more powerful national government, a government much like the one they had rebelled against in 1775.

Clearly, revolution, reaction, and reform are impossible to separate when discussing the formative years of the United States. Revolutions and reforms typically are reactions to intolerable or unacceptable conditions, and they often in turn inspire reactions themselves.

Teaching about these complex events requires an appreciation of causes and consequences as well as of different viewpoints. The materials in this curriculum book provide examples of strategies and resources which can be used to initiate or enhance existing lessons and units in history and social studies on "Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History." The materials can be adapted or modified by the teacher. Most of the lessons are relatively short and can be used in the classroom in 1-2 days. They use primary sources to enliven the study of the past and

The Motley family of Delaware at the March on Washington, 1963. Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

teach students to think for themselves. The enrichment and extension sections suggest additional ways of approaching the same or similar topics. The lessons and articles are designed to encourage students to think critically and to conduct research, interpret primary sources, and explore the larger historical significance of topics that interest them.

The first unit introduces the theme, suggests sources for research, and helps students develop research and analytical skills. The theme narrative explains the theme and elaborates on its meaning in relation to various types of topics, while the list of sample topics gives students a starting point for developing their own topic ideas. The bibliography points to selected secondary sources which can be used for background reading and context.

The next three lessons focus on research. The "Research Roadmap" takes students through the research process step-by-step. "Women and Reform Movements in the United States, 1820-1920" and "Political Revolutions of the 20th Century" are a new type of article developed in response to requests from teachers. They are guides to the various primary sources available for studying and teaching about those topics.

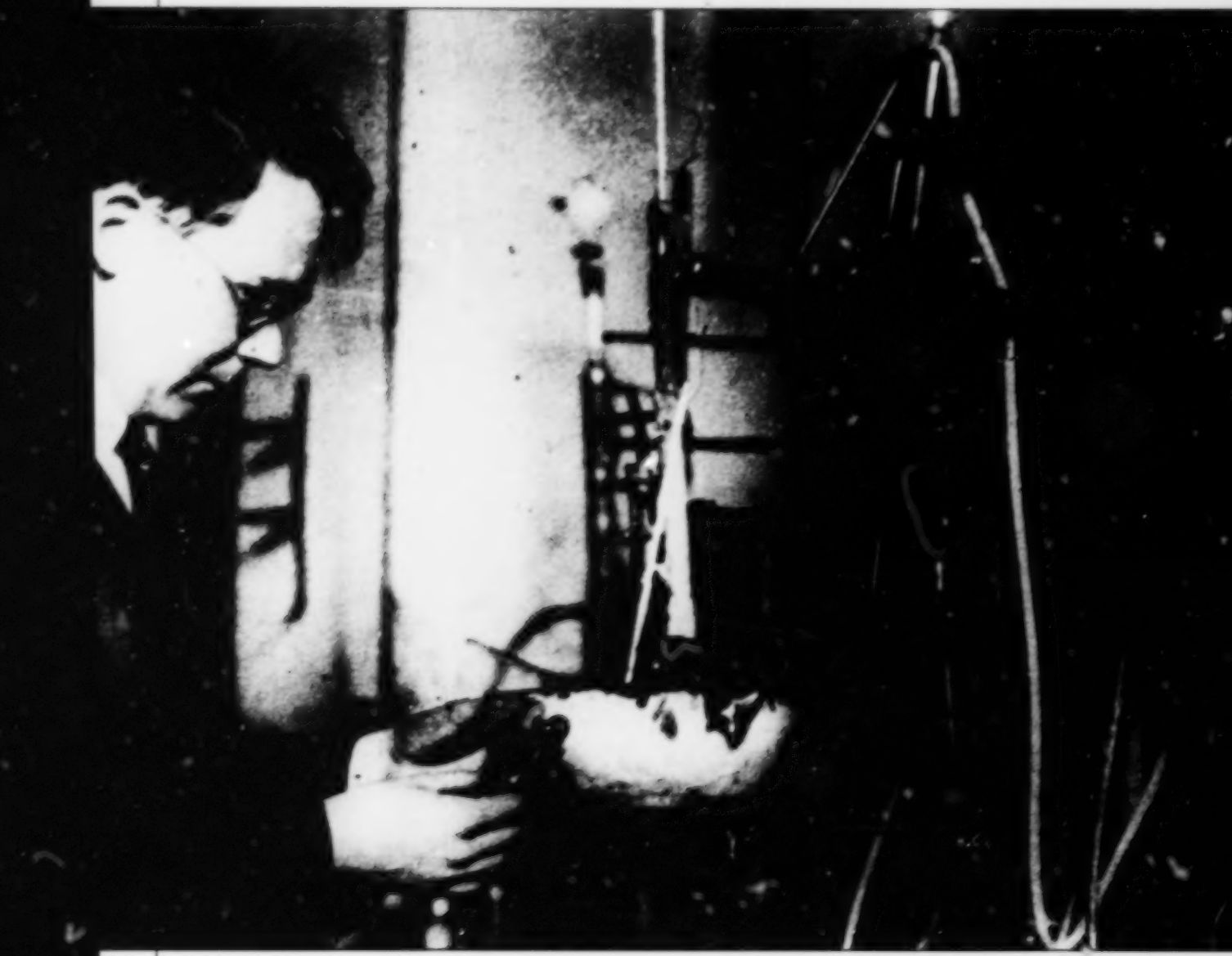
The final lesson in this unit, "Analyzing and Using Statistical Evidence to Study the Past," provides ideas on how to teach students to analyze numerical data. The examples come from census data for Summit County, Ohio, but the worksheet and activities can be used with many different types of data. The lesson also includes a list of sources of statistical evidence.

The rest of the book features lessons which model different ways of using primary sources in the classroom, using sources related to the theme, "Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History." The first lesson, "The Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre: A Religious Reaction in 16th Century France," uses excerpts from a history of the massacre written by an eyewitness to analyze what happened and why. Two letters by an African American veteran of the Continental Army eloquently explain what the American Revolution meant to him and provide the basis for "African American Soldiers and the Revolutionary War: Sons of Liberty?" "The 'Revolution' of 1800" analyzes Thomas Jefferson's inaugural address and assesses the extent to which his administration was as revolutionary as he claimed. The book then jumps ahead to the Progressive era with a lesson focusing on child labor and the efforts by reformers to end it.

The remainder of the book has a more international flavor. The Cold War is the backdrop for the next two lessons. The first, "China's Entry into the Korean War: Conflicting Accounts," considers the problem of conflicting evidence, using two versions of a telegram from Mao Zedong of China to Josef Stalin of the Soviet Union. The second lesson looks at Cold War propaganda to analyze efforts to influence public opinion. The last two lessons deal with America in the 1960s. The first looks at the public outcry when it appeared that labor and immigration laws would prevent the Beatles from touring America. The second looks at the conflict which the Vietnam War caused on the home front.

Throughout the book you will find lessons and articles which promote family and local history. The best History Day entries make extensive use of primary sources. Students pursuing topics related to their families or their communities can take advantage of the many resources available locally. The articles on women and reform in America and revolutions in the 20th century as well as the lessons on statistics and Cold War propaganda provide some ideas for doing local history topics. You also will find additional resources for studying the history of your state on the links page of the NHD web site, which includes links to museums, historical societies, and historic sites as well as libraries and archives in each state.

The lessons in this book are designed to encourage students to come up with additional ideas about revolutions, reactions, and/or reforms in history in a variety of time periods and places. They also demonstrate how to choose small, manageable topics within larger events such as the American Revolution or the Cold War. The sample topics and resources are simply a starting place for students and teachers interested in this broad theme. Students who want to research topics for participation in National History Day should develop additional ideas. They may start their research by examining some of the sources listed here, but should continue their investigation for more resources at libraries, archives, museums, historical societies, and other places around their communities to discover the significance of revolution, reaction, and reform in history.



THEME NARRATIVE

Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History

Dr. Wallace Carothers in his lab at the DuPont Experimental Station, where he helped develop nylon. Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

During the 2001-2002 school year, National History Day invites students to research topics related to the theme, "Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History." The theme is broad enough in scope to encourage investigation of topics ranging from local to world history. To understand the historical importance of their topics, students must ask questions of time and place, cause and effect, change over time, and impact and significance. They must ask not only when events happened but also why they happened and what impact they had. What factors contributed to their development? Regardless of the topic selected, students must not only present a description of it, but also draw conclusions about how their topic affected individuals, communities, nations, or the world.

Students investigating this year's theme should think of the theme in broad terms, as the distinctions among revolutions, reactions, and reforms may be blurred. Revolutions and reforms are themselves often reactions to particular situations or events, and they in turn inspire reactions. According to the *American Heritage Dictionary*, the word revolution means "the overthrow of one government and its replacement with another" or "a sudden or momentous change in a situation." It defines reform as an "improvement" or "action to improve social or economic conditions without radical or revolutionary change." Whether revolutionary or gradual, such changes often inspire opposition, as some people seek to slow or even to reverse them. Consequently, some topics will warrant students focusing on revolution, reaction, AND reform, while other topics may allow them to focus on just one or two aspects of the theme. Students should cover all aspects of the theme relevant to their topics.

For many Americans, the word revolution conjures up images of the Fourth of July, celebrating our revolutionary heritage; for others, it brings to mind gun-toting guerrillas. Political and social revolutions such as those in America in the 1770s and the communist revolutions of the 20th century are complex events which provide a plethora of potential topics. Rather than attempting to analyze and document an entire political revolution, students should look for more manageable topics such as the ideas leading to or emerging from a particular revolution, specific events or factions within a revolution, or individuals who affected or were affected by a revolution. A paper could illuminate the role the Stamp Act of 1765 played in the coming of the American Revolution. The role of women in the French Revolution might be illustrated through a performance focusing on the bread riots of 1789, while Mohandas Gandhi's leadership of India's revolt against British rule would make a compelling topic for a documentary.

Political revolutions provoke reactions far beyond the borders of a single nation. How did other revolutions inspire slaves in Saint-Domingue to stage their own revolution in 1791? An exhibit could examine the Allied invasion of Russia, a reaction to the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917. How did American fear of the spread of communist revolutions affect the Cold War? A documentary could focus on the Marshall Plan or the Truman Doctrine as manifestations of this fear, while a performance might look at U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War.

Failed revolutions and rebellions also provide excellent topics for student entries. A paper could appraise the Sepoy Rebellion in India in 1857 and how it affected British colonial policy. An exhibit could examine the Boxer Rebellion of 1900, which helped fuel Chinese nationalism and the rise of Sun Yixian. What was the reaction throughout the South to Nat Turner's rebellion in Virginia in 1831? Can Reconstruction be considered a failed revolution?

Wide-ranging reform programs sometimes can spur changes as great as those caused by revolutions. The effects of the reforms of Solon and Cleisthenes on Athens in the 6th century BC would be a suitable topic for a paper. How did the Meiji Restoration (1868-1912) affect Tokugawa Japan? A performance might focus on Mikhail Gorbachev's policies of glasnost and perestroika in the Soviet Union during the last years

of the Cold War. A documentary could examine the impact of Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal. How did the New Deal revolutionize the role of government in American life in the 1930s?

Individual reforms and reform movements also deserve attention. The work of anti-slavery advocates such as Frederick Douglass and William Lloyd Garrison in the antebellum U.S. supplies dramatic material for performances. Any of the reforms of the Progressive movement in the early 20th century would make good topics; an exhibit might explain the role of muckraking journalists in agitating for reform. How was the settlement house movement an attempt at social reform? What role did Jane Addams play? A documentary could examine the consequences of the student revolts in France in 1968.

Court cases frequently can be classified as reactions, while their outcomes may lead to reforms or even revolutions. A performance might explore the role of the Court of Star Chamber in leading English Puritans to revolt in the 1630s. How could the 1896 case, *Plessy v. Ferguson*, be considered a reaction? How did the Supreme Court's *Miranda v. Arizona* decision in 1966 reform the treatment of those accused of crimes?

While less frequent than political revolutions or reforms, economic revolutions may have an even broader impact. The commercial revolution of the 1500s involved Africa, the Americas, Asia, and Europe, while the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century eventually affected the entire world. Students should focus on a specific, fairly limited aspect of an economic revolution rather than trying to master a revolution in its entirety. The spice trade between Europe and Asia would be an excellent topic for an exhibit, as would the role of sugar in creating plantation economies in the Caribbean. A documentary could assess the experiences of female factory workers in the Lowell mills in the 1830s. How did the Luddites represent a reaction to the Industrial Revolution?

Consumers also have experienced revolutions. How did tea play a role in stimulating a consumer revolution in 18th-century America? What impact did it have politically? Students could create documentaries analyzing revolutions in shopping such as the development of department stores or the Montgomery Ward and Sears catalogues in the late 1800s, while a paper could explore the significance of installment buying in the early 20th century.

Economic revolutions often result from technological innovations, which sometimes lead to tremendous social changes as well. How did the cotton gin have an impact on slavery in the antebellum South? In what ways did the typewriter provide new opportunities for women in late 19th century offices? How was this revolutionary? The adoption of the stirrup in 8th century Europe and its effects on warfare and society could be the subject of a paper, while a documentary could portray the effects of automobiles on dating. How could other transportation innovations such as steamships, canals, railroads, and airplanes be considered revolutionary?

A meeting of the Committee of Public Safety in revolutionary France. Stipple engraving by J. B. Huet, fils [ca. 1793]. Library of Congress.

Resources from the National Archives and Records Administration Related to Revolution, Reaction, and Reform in History

The National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) is the federal agency responsible for preserving and making available the permanently valuable records of the United States government. All totaled, the National Archives is responsible for more than 4 billion textual documents, almost 14 million still pictures, more than 20 million maps, charts, aerial photographs and satellite images, about 300,000 reels of motion picture film, more than 200,000 sound recordings, and about 17,800 computer data sets! Although the largest National Archives facilities are in the Washington, DC, area, there are regional facilities and Presidential Libraries throughout the country that also welcome National History Day researchers. The National Archives web site provides information about all of the NARA facilities, research guidance for National History Day students, and thousands of digitized images of primary source documents related to Revolution, Reaction, and Reform in History.

On the National Archives web site <http://www.nara.gov>, please visit:

The Digital Classroom – http://www.nara.gov/education

The Online Exhibit Hall – http://www.nara.gov/exhall

The Regional Records Services Facilities – http://www.nara.gov/regional/nrmenu.html

The Presidential Libraries – http://www.nara.gov/nara/president/address.html

Project Whistlestop – http://www.whistlestop.org

The NARA Archival Information Locator (NAIL) database – http://www.nara.gov/nara/nail.html

NAIL contains information about and more than 124,000 digital copies of select textual documents, photographs, maps, and sound recordings representing a wide variety of National Archives holdings across the country.

Some of the treasures in NAIL include:

- More than 6000 Mathew Brady photographs of Civil War-era personalities and scenes
- The Articles of Confederation
- The Emancipation Proclamation
- More than 100 Civilian Conservation Corps photographs taken between 1939 and 1941
- A copy of the motion filed on behalf of James Meredith
- More than 100 Civil War-era maps, charts, plans, and drawings
- About 500 photographs taken by Lewis Hine of child labor abuses for the National Child Labor Committee, 1908-1912
- Almost 200 photographs taken by Lewis Hine for the Tennessee Valley Authority in 1933
- Thousands of photographs from DOCUMERICA: The Environmental Protection Agency's Program to Photographically Document Subjects of Environmental Concern in the 1970s
- 5 documents relating to the Spanish-American War and the sinking of the USS Maine
- 11 documents from the case file of suffragist Susan B. Anthony
- 9 documents from the U.S. Attorney for the Southern District of New York's case against Julius and Ethel Rosenberg
- Aerial photographs showing the Auschwitz Concentration Camp and a Central Intelligence Agency analysis of this photography
- General Eisenhower's D-Day statement to soldiers, sailors, and airmen of the Allied Expeditionary Force
- A single page memorandum giving authorization for Francis Gary Powers' last U-2 flight over the USSR
- A letter to President William McKinley from Annie Oakley offering to place a company of fifty American lady sharpshooters at his disposal should war break out with Spain
- 163 documents which relate to the Chinese Exclusion Acts
- 64 documents related to investigations into prohibition violations in Idaho, Oregon, Washington, and Montana
- Speeches of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1933-1945
- Hundreds of photographs from the War Relocation Authority that document the daily life and treatment of Japanese-Americans during World War II
- 100 political cartoons created by Clifford K. Berryman, the Pulitzer Prize winning cartoonist
- and more than 100,000 others!

Advances in human thinking and knowledge made the technology described above possible. What was revolutionary about Isaac Newton's work in the 1600s? How did Galileo Galilei's trial before the Inquisition in 1633 represent a reaction to the Scientific Revolution? The impact of Marie Curie's work on radiation in the early 1900s would make an interesting documentary, while a performance might examine her contemporary Sigmund Freud's study of human psychology. Alternatively, students could investigate any of the revolutions in medical care of the 20th century.

Instead of studying the physical world, students may choose to examine the spiritual world by researching a religious revolution or reform. Martin Luther's role in sparking the Protestant Reformation would make an excellent topic for a performance. How did the Catholic Church react? An exhibit could explore the founding of the Jesuit order in 1534 as part of the Catholic Counter-Reformation. Many religions, such as Buddhism and various types of Protestantism, originated as efforts to reform existing religions, and their beginnings would be suitable topics for History Day entries.

Some religious groups have helped spawn social revolutions or reforms. A documentary, for example, might focus on the Islamic revolutionaries and the changes they brought to Iranian society in the 1980s. An exhibit could assess the activities of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union in fighting

alcohol use. But social revolutions may occur for reasons unrelated to religion. What prompted French revolutionaries to end feudalism and serfdom in the 1790s? What precipitated Lincoln's decision to issue the Emancipation Proclamation during the Civil War? Industrialization diminished married women's economic contribution to the family in the antebellum North; a paper could probe the "Cult of True Womanhood" as a reaction to this loss of status.

Students may find many topics in local history which are suitable. The local consequences of industrialization or revolutions in transportation would make good topics. Students in eastern states could study local experiences during the American Revolution, while those in the South could focus on Reconstruction. Students in agricultural areas might look at the history of the Populists in their states. The work of Progressive reformers or civil rights activists in their states also would be good topics. Or students may find reform movements or "revolutions" unique to their areas.

The theme is a broad one, so topics should be carefully selected and developed in ways that best use students' talents and abilities. Whether a topic is a well-known event in world history or focuses on a little-known individual from a small community, students should be careful to place their topics into historical perspective, examine the significance of their topics in history, and show development over time. Studies should include an investigation into available primary and secondary sources, analysis of the evidence, and a clear explanation of the relationship of the topic to the theme, "Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History." Then, students may develop papers, performances, documentaries, and exhibits for entry into National History Day competitions.

For Program Rules and Information, write:
National History Day, 0119 Cecil Hall, University of Maryland,
College Park, MD 20742; call (301) 314-9739;
e-mail national.history.day@umail.umd.edu; or
check on-line at http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org.

National Contest: June 9-13, 2002

The end of slavery caused a revolution in the lives of those freed from bondage. Freedpeople in Richmond, Virginia, 1865. Library of Congress.

SAMPLE TOPICS

The following list of sample topics is meant simply to give students an idea of the sorts of topics which are possible with this year's theme.

- The Allied Invasion of Russia: Reaction to Revolution
- John Brown's Revolt against Slavery
- The U.S. Constitution: Reform or Counter-Revolution?
- Dorothea Dix and the Asylum Movement
- Simon Bolívar and Latin American independence
- The Coercive or Intolerable Acts: Britain's Reaction to the Boston Tea Party
- The WCTU and Alcohol in America
- From FDR to Nixon: the Revolution of Presidential Press Coverage
- The Copernican Revolution: Copernicus, Galileo, and Kepler
- Television: A Cultural Revolution
- The Boxer Rebellion: China's Fight Against Foreign Powers
- The Glorious Revolution and Britain's Bill of Rights
- The Edict of Nantes: A New Approach to Religious Dissent
- Jose Martí and Cuba's War of Independence
- Margaret Sanger: Champion of Birth Control
- The Black Panthers against the Establishment
- Canals and Railroads: The 19th-Century Revolution in Transportation
- Bismarck's Reforms in Germany
- Classical Music: Reaction to the Baroque Era
- Confucius and Civil Service Reform in China
- Aguinaldo and the Philippine Uprising
- Jonas Savimbi: Angolan Revolutionary
- The Wesley Brothers and Methodist Reforms of the Church of England
- Hawks and Doves: American Reaction to the Vietnam War
- The Airplane: Revolution in Warfare
- Sit-ins and Freedom Rides: Reformers in Action
- Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation
- The Reforms of Sosthenes
- William Wallace: Rebel Against English Oppression
- The Model T: Henry Ford Revolutionizes the Auto Industry
- Fourierism and the Reaction to Industrialization
- The *Communist Manifesto*: The Book of Revolution
- King Philip's War: Reaction to Puritan Expansion
- The Red Scare: American Reaction to Communism
- Germ Theory: Revolution in Medicine
- Vatican II: the Modern Reformation of the Catholic Church
- Picasso: Revolution in Art
- Hush hush: Reaction to Henrik Ibsen's "A Doll's House"
- Virginia Woolf and the Birth of Modern Feminism
- Martha Graham: Mother of Modern Dance
- Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier, Founder of Modern Chemistry
- Curt Flood and Free Agency in Baseball
- Nasser and Pan-Arab Nationalism: A Response to European Imperialism
- Thoreau and Resistance to the Mexican War
- The Peaceful Revolutionary: Gandhi
- The Trial of John Peter Zenger: A Revolution in the Rights of the Press
- AIM: Native Americans Resist
- Magna Carta: Revolutionary Document
- Nelson Mandela and the End of Apartheid in South Africa
- Sewer Systems: Revolution in Urban Sanitation
- Shakespeare: A Dramatic Revolution
- The Inquisition: Reaction to Dissenting Ideas
- The Revolution in Print: Gutenberg's Printing Press
- The Federal Reserve: Reform of the Banking System
- The Right-to-Life Movement: Reaction to *Roe v. Wade*
- The Revolutions of 1848 in Europe
- Castro: The Maximum Leader of the Cuban Revolution
- Adam Smith and *The Wealth of Nations*: An End to Mercantilism

- The New Deal: Saving Capitalism Through Reform
- Oliver Cromwell and the English Civil War
- The Columbian Exchange: An Unexpected Revolution
- Charlotte Perkins Gilman: Revolution of the Domestic Woman
- Jazz: Revolution in Music
- Reaction to Labor Unrest: The Suppression of the Homestead Strike
- The Ayatollah Khomeini and the Iranian Revolution
- The Reign of Terror: Radicalization of the French Revolution
- Darwinian Revolution
- St. Francis of Assisi: Reform in Monasticism
- Gloria Steinem and Betty Friedan: Leaders of the Women's Movement
- Reconstruction: The Failed Revolution?
- Title IX: Gender Equality in Sports
- The Atomic Bomb: Revolution in Warfare
- The Whiskey Rebellion: Challenge to a Young Government
- The Warren Court as an Agent of Reform
- Reaction to Pearl Harbor: Japanese Internment Camps
- Steven Jobs and the Personal Computer Revolution
- The Egyptian Pyramids: Revolution in Architecture
- Tecumseh and the Indian Reaction to Western Expansion
- Response to Immigration: The Know-Nothings
- The Founding of the Iroquois Confederacy: Revolution and Reform
- "Who Lost China?": American Reaction to the Chinese Revolution
- LBJ and the Great Society
- Toussaint L'ouverture and the Haitian Revolution
- The Meiji Restoration and the Reform of Japan
- Pancho Villa, Mexican Revolutionary

The American Memory Project

Regardless of whether you live on an isolated farm or in a small town far from any historical institution or in a big city or college town with excellent libraries, you now have access to an astounding abundance of primary sources thanks to the National Digital Library of the Library of Congress. The NDL has already digitized vast collections of manuscripts, photographs, audiotapes, films, and other sources and is putting more material on-line every day. No matter what the topic, especially in American history, the NDL probably has sources for you!

American Memory Project

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/amhome.html>

This is the largest and best-known part of the National Digital Library. The Project includes more than 90 collections, and you will see references to it littered throughout this book. For the full list of collections, see the Project's web site, but here are some of the most intriguing for "Revolution, Reaction, Reform in History":

- From Slavery to Freedom: The African-American Pamphlet Collection, 1824-1909
- The Evolution of the Conservation Movement, 1850-1920
- A Century of Lawmaking for a New Nation: U.S. Congressional Documents and Debates, 1774-1873
- Documents from the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention, 1774-1789
- America from the Great Depression to World War II: Photographs from the FSA and OWI
- American Environmental Photographs, 1891-1936: Images from the University of Chicago
- William P. Gottlieb: Photographs from the Golden Age of Jazz
- The Thomas Jefferson Papers at the Library of Congress
- The American Revolution and Its Era: Maps and Charts of North America and the West Indies
- Theodore Roosevelt: His Life and Times on Film
- Votes for Women: Selections from the National American Women Suffrage Collection, 1848-1921
- By Popular Demand: "Votes for Women" Suffrage Pictures from 1894-1915
- George Washington Papers at the Library of Congress, 1741-1799

The Learning Page

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/ndlpedu/index.html>

A companion to the American Memory Project, the Learning Page provides lesson ideas and activities to incorporate primary sources into courses. Under Research Tools, you will find a page dedicated to National History Day research.

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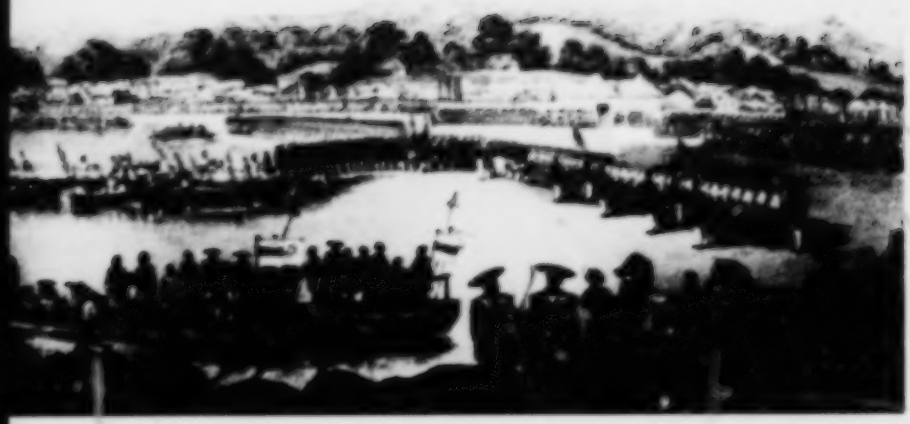

Commodore Matthew Perry's visit in 1853 helped revolutionize Japanese society. Lithograph by Saxony & Company, 1855. Library of Congress.

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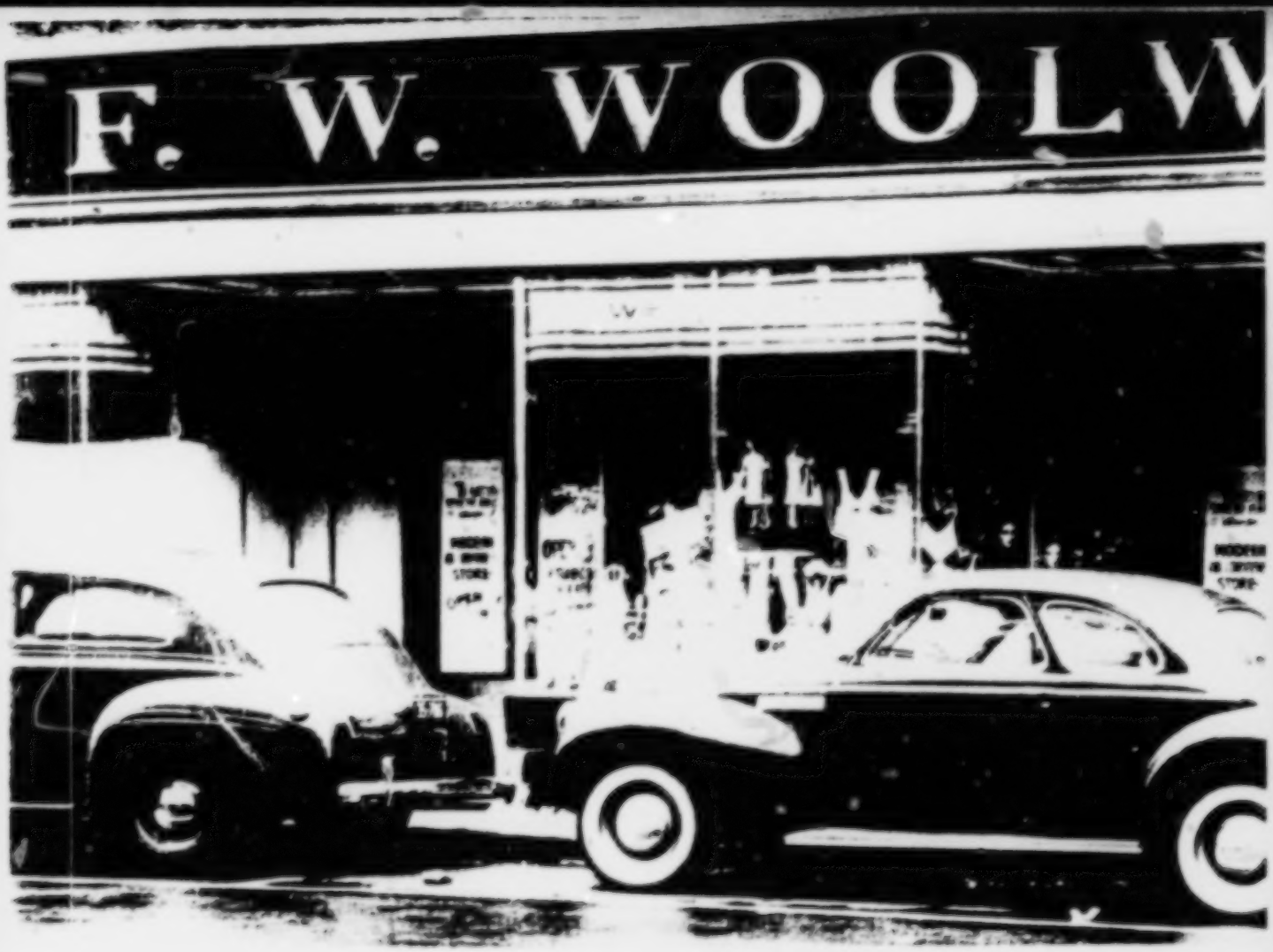


A RESEARCH ROADMAP

For Your History Day Topic

by Jodi Vandenberg-Daves, University of Wisconsin-La Crosse

What's a "primary source" and why would I want to find one?

So many participants in National History Day get hooked on history because history becomes real to them. How does this happen? The key to making exciting discoveries about the past is interacting with primary sources.

What's the difference between a primary source and a secondary source when you're doing historical research? Sometimes this can be a complicated question, but here are some general guidelines to help you distinguish between the two. A secondary source is a book or article written by an author who is not an eyewitness or a participant in the historical event or period. For example, high school history textbooks and other history books about a particular topic are secondary sources. So are biographies and reference books, such as encyclopedias. The most basic definition of a primary source is: material written or produced in the time period students are investigating. A letter written by President Lincoln in 1862 is a primary source for a student researching the Civil War era. The memories of a person who was part of Cesar Chavez's labor union movement also can serve as a primary source, even if you conduct an oral history interview with the person in 2001. He or she was an eyewitness to and a participant in this historical event at the time.

F.W. Woolworth helped revolutionize shopping. Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

Like professional historians, History Day students must ask questions about their topic's significance in history, and they must creatively interpret primary sources in order to answer questions about their research topics. As you participate in National History Day you will be defining, identifying, getting your hands on, and interpreting primary sources, as well as doing background research in secondary sources. As you do this, you are making history! We have created this roadmap to give you some ideas of the logistics involved and to help you start stretching your brain for the marathon ahead.

Now, to get started on your research. . . .

1. Secondary sources give you background and lead you to the primary sources.

It's important to start your research journey by looking at some secondary sources. This will help you understand how to place your topic in the larger historical context. History books and other reference materials help you understand why your topic is important and how it relates to economic, social and political developments of the period. A good National History Day project draws on several kinds of secondary sources, in addition to your own original interpretation of primary sources. Look at monographs as well as general reference books to get background on your topic. You will

discover that professional historians bring their own biases to the topics they research, and you should seek more than one perspective on the issues you are researching.

REFERENCE BOOKS

Look for general information in: encyclopedias, special historical dictionaries, and historical atlases. General encyclopedias such as *World Book* can provide you with basic information, while subject encyclopedias such as the *Encyclopedia of the North American Colonies* or the *Encyclopedia of American Economic History* provide a bit more detailed information. Encyclopedia articles often have bibliographies which can direct you to some of the major secondary sources for a topic.

POPULAR PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Popular magazines, indexed in the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, can give you ideas for and some general information about particular topics. *National Geographic* provides general information on provocative topics. Many other magazines and newspapers publish articles dealing with individuals or historical issues. For example, in the mid-1990s many U.S. newspapers and magazines wrote about Nelson Mandela, whose political activism helped revolutionize South African society by ending apartheid, and who became president of South Africa in 1994 after spending 28 years in prison for his politics. Starting a project on apartheid, you might begin here, and get ideas for interesting topics about the events that led to this revolution.

HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

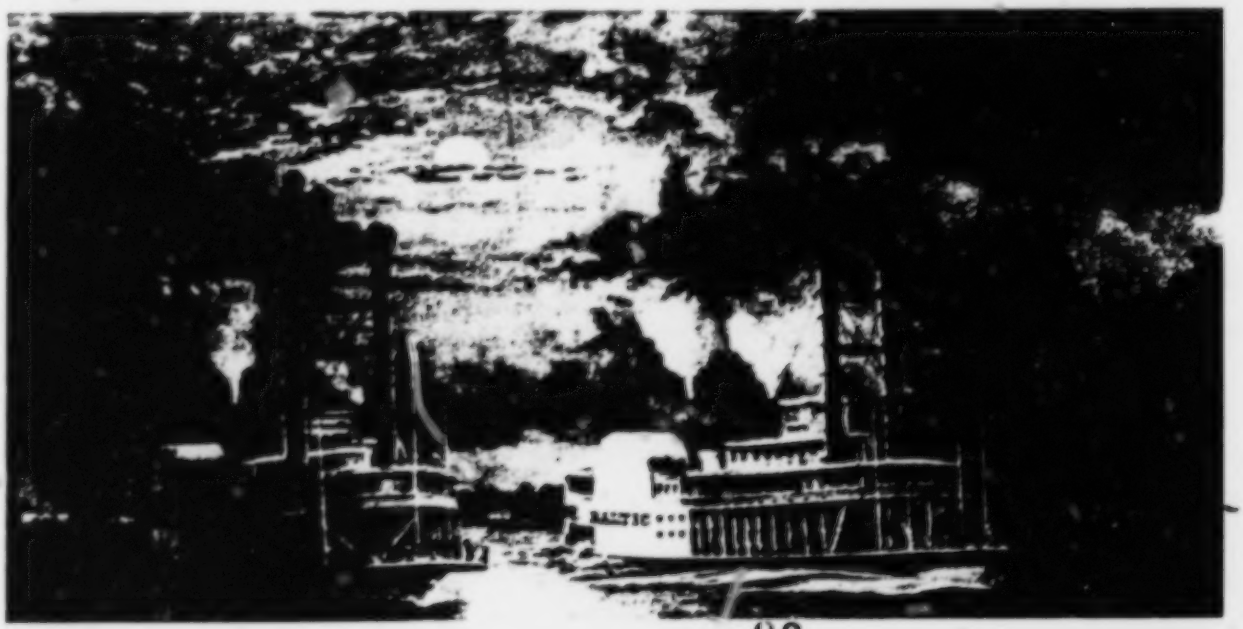
Yes, really! Your textbook can be a great place to get ideas for topics and find out about the general context of your topic. If you're interested in the invention of the telescope as it revolutionized astronomy, first do some background reading on the scientific revolution as a whole, perhaps in a general textbook on European history. This will help you understand how your topic fits in with the "big picture."

GENERAL HISTORICAL WORKS AND MONOGRAPHS

Move from the general to the specific. A book on the history of astronomy will provide more detail than a general text on European history. Try a keyword search at a larger library and you'll find dozens, if not hundreds, of books on the history of astronomy and related sciences. Another way to find secondary sources on your topic is to check the notes and bibliographies of books you've already found. And sometimes you might be able to find an entire book which is a bibliography on your topic; these books will be in the reference section, especially at university libraries. A good guide to the best books in just about any area of history is *The American Historical Association's Guide to Historical Literature*, 3rd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1995).

JOURNAL ARTICLES

Steamboats revolutionized water transportation. Lithograph by Adam Weingaertner after a painting by George F. Fuller, 1859. Library of Congress.



Historians don't always write books. Smaller essays on specific topics can be found in scholarly journals. These are periodicals similar to magazines, only they are specifically focused on history topics. There are general journals, like *The Journal of American History*, and more specific ones, like *History of Education*. Academic journals can usually be found at college and university libraries, and there are often indexes to help you find an article on a specific topic. Or just peruse some of these journals to see what kinds of questions professional historians are asking about your topic.

2. Getting acquainted with primary sources.

Bibliographies located in the back of general works and the notes and bibliographies found in monographs will lead you to all kinds of interesting primary sources. Here are some basic kinds of primary sources:

LETTERS, DIARIES, AND OTHER FIRST PERSON NARRATIVES

Diaries, letters, or reminiscences of revolutionary soldiers, political activists, or government officials could provide fascinating first-hand accounts of people's experiences with revolutions. Many diaries and collections of letters have been published, and you can find them through library catalogues or reference books such as *American Diaries*. The microform collections of major university libraries often include a series called *Early American Imprints*, which reproduces every book, pamphlet, and broadside published in America before 1820. This is a great source for first-person accounts of the American and French Revolutions, backcountry rebellions, and similar topics. The same libraries may own microfilm series with titles such as *Early English Books* or *The Eighteenth Century*, which are catalogued in *The English Short-Title Catalogue*. These reproduce all English-language works published anywhere in the world or any books, regardless of language, published in England or the English empire from 1473 to 1800. You can find many works relating to world history, since many accounts originally written in foreign languages were translated into English and published. For example, you could find many primary sources relating to the Protestant Reformation and the conflicts between Protestants and Catholics in Europe. Travel narratives, written by English visitors to foreign lands, also can provide insight into world history topics.

MANUSCRIPT/PAPER COLLECTIONS OF NONPROFIT AND BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS, PROMINENT INDIVIDUALS, OR FAMILIES

These include letters, memos, reports, statements of purpose, plans for projects, deeds, wills, etc. Collections of papers of a particular organization, individual or family can be found in the holdings of state and local historical societies, churches and other organizations, or maybe in your attic. Collections of papers in historical societies are likely to be organized by subject or time period in boxes, and they often have finding aids, which are detailed guides to what's in the collection. University libraries often have special collections units which have not only university records but manuscript holdings about alumni, donors, or local families or businesses. They also typically have microfilm collections of manuscripts owned by other institutions. While not comprehensive, the online *National Union Catalogue of Manuscript Collections* <http://lcweb.loc.gov/coll/nucmc/> is a great place to start looking for manuscripts.

SONGS AND HYMNS

For example, the United States labor movement of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries left behind many songs which might be interpreted as promoting reform or revolution–you be the judge! You may find songbooks or recordings in your local public or university library. The American Memory Project of the Library of Congress also includes many songs <http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/ammemhome.html>.

PHOTOGRAPHS

There are wonderful photographs available for many revolutions from the mid-nineteenth century to the present, including photos of laborers during the industrial revolution, and photojournalism of national revolutions around the world. Photographers, such as those during the Progressive era, also took many photos which inspired reform movements. You may find pictures in books or magazines and typically historical societies and archives have photographic collections. Look at the Research Links section of the National History Day web site <http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org> for links to some major online photographic collections.

TOOLS, MACHINES, FURNITURE AND OTHER ARTIFACTS

After studying some of the machines, such as conveyer belt machines, that shaped the industrial revolution, you might build a model for your History Day exhibit, and use it as part of your historical interpretation. You can find artifacts at museums, historical societies, or historic sites. You might even find something you can use at a local antique store or flea market or even in your grandparents' attic.

COURT PROCEEDINGS

An interesting study of "reaction in history" could be developed from examination of the proceedings of the famous Scopes trial of 1925, which provides a fascinating glimpse at the reaction of many Americans to the teaching of evolution in the schools. (These proceedings were broadcast nationwide on the radio at the time!) Some court records have been printed in book form and others in newspapers. Records for local and state courts will probably be at your state archives or at the appropriate courthouse, while federal court records are available at the National Archives. Supreme Court opinions from 1893 to the present are available online at FindLaw <http://guide.lp.findlaw.com/casecode/supreme.html>.

GOVERNMENT RECORDS, INCLUDING CENSUS DATA

Have you thought about the revolution in the American family in the second half of the twentieth century? Census records, usually available in large libraries, can tell you about changes such as the growing participation of mothers in the labor force. County-level census data from 1790 to 1970 are also available online at <http://fisher.lib.virginia.edu/census/>. Your state archives will have records for your state government, while the National Archives and its many branches house the records of the federal government. The National Archives and various presidential libraries have put some government records online; go to <http://www.nara.gov/> for more information and links. You could use these records to study not only revolution, reaction, and reform in the United States but also foreign revolutions and events through diplomatic and other government records. Colonial and state records through the early 19th century are available in a huge microfilm collection called *The Records of the States of the United States*.

NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES

Newspaper or magazine articles from the time period you're considering often provide wonderful eyewitness accounts. Many university libraries have microfilm copies of *The New York Times*, which started publishing in 1851 and which is indexed, so you can find articles on your subject relatively easily. Public and university libraries often have microfilm copies of local and state newspapers, too. Be sure you know about what date your event occurred to help you find some good articles.

For 20th-century magazines, use the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* to find articles. For 19th-century magazines, the equivalent is something called *Poole's Index to Periodical Literature*, which is available primarily at university libraries. University and some public libraries will have microfilm of such popular magazines as *Time*, *Newsweek*, and *Harper's Weekly*. Copies of thousands of issues of 19th-century magazines may be found online through the Making of America project <http://moa.umdl.umich.edu/>. The library of the flagship university in your state may have a microfilm collection called *American Periodical Series*, which includes all existing issues of most American magazines published in the 18th and 19th centuries. Note: Newspapers or magazines published during the time period you are researching are primary sources. A newspaper article published in 2001 commemorating the Russian Revolution of 1917 is not a primary source.

ORAL HISTORY INTERVIEWS

An oral history interview is a focused interview with someone about his/her past and role in history. (The person needs to have been a participant in the historical event or period you are investigating; an interview with an expert on the history of the American Revolution is not a primary source but may be a very good secondary source.) You can conduct an oral history interview yourself. You might also find collections of oral histories conducted by historians. These are usually located at historical societies and archives, and sometimes online. For example, the American Memory collection of the Library of Congress' National Digital Library has a wide range of transcripts of oral histories. See <http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/ammemhome.html>. A good resource for students interested in using oral history is *Doing Oral History*, by Donald A. Ritchie (New York: Twayne Publishers, 1995).

3. Finding the primary sources you need.

Make phone calls, send e-mail, or write to living historical figures–famous and not famous. If you've chosen a topic that took place during the past 60 years, chances are you can find someone who participated in or experienced it first-hand. Don't overlook people in your own community. There's almost certainly someone in your hometown who participated in civil rights activities, protested government actions, worked for reforms, or fought for freedom at home or abroad.

Contact libraries, local, state, and national historical societies and organizations to find out about their collections. To plan your visit efficiently, take advantage of the catalogues or guides which many libraries, archives, and historical societies have made available online. You can find links to many of them from the National History Day web site <http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org>. Your state or city may have a unified online catalogue of all or many libraries in your area, which makes finding books easier. You can usually find out about these at the web site of your official state library (we have links from the NHD web site) or sometimes from the web sites of local public libraries. The libraries of the public universities in a state often have a unified catalogue, too; visit one of the libraries in person or check out the web sites of the individual libraries to find more information.

Visit historic sites related to your topic. In addition to getting a feel for where your event took place and getting visual images if you're doing an exhibit or documentary, take advantage of the resources at historic sites. You can usually find an expert at the site who has done a lot of research and may have or know of some great sources. And the site may have a research collection of books, manuscripts, and artifacts which you might be allowed to use. Call or write first to find out what's available and make an appointment, if necessary.

4. Some examples of where primary and secondary sources can be found.

SCHOOL LIBRARY

A great place to start. At your own school, you will probably find:

- Encyclopedias
- History textbooks
- General historical works and monographs
- Access to the Internet

PUBLIC LIBRARY

You'll find a greater selection of resources here, and possibly access to excellent sources through interlibrary loan. Ask at the circulation or reference desks about interlibrary loan, which is a way to borrow books or even microfilm from libraries all over the country. At a public library, you can find:

- Additional reference books
- General historical works
- Access to the Internet
- Access to interlibrary loan
- Video documentaries
- Some historical monographs
- Historical novels (e.g., Theodore Dreiser's novel *Sister Carrie* could serve as a primary source in its descriptions of the industrial revolution.)
- Clipping files: newspaper and magazine accounts of local events
- Special collections of various resources
- Newspapers and magazines

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

Here you'll find an even wider selection, including unique collections and greater access to primary sources. You often cannot check materials out if you are not a university student, so come prepared with change for copying and notebook paper for note-taking. You can find:

- History journal articles
- General historical works and monographs
- Historical atlases (e.g., a map showing major battles in the Chinese revolution)
- Popular magazine collections (Here you can find interesting visual documentation of things like the revolution of fashion, such as the acceptability of women wearing pants, when only a few decades earlier they wore long skirts.)
- Previous studies of your topic, which may include some primary sources (e.g., a history of the Mexican revolution might contain translated songs from that period)

STATE AND LOCAL HISTORICAL SOCIETIES AND ARCHIVES

Ever wonder what's inside those buildings in your community or state capital? Go find out! It's a good idea to do some preliminary research in secondary sources first and maybe make a few phone calls or check out the institution's web site. The more specific you are about what you're looking for, the more helpful the staff of such institutions can be. Also take lots of paper for note-taking and some change for copying because the historical documents cannot be checked out. You can find:

- Manuscript Collections:
- Letters and Diaries
- Papers of prominent local individuals and families
- Papers of state and local organizations such as state political parties, boards of education, and foundations
- State and local newspapers (some may be indexed by topic)
- Oral history collections
- Records of government agencies
- Records of births, marriages and deaths
- Collections of photographs
- Brochures and pamphlets
- Reports of state commissions on various subjects, such as education, commerce or crime
- Historical object collections

ORGANIZATIONS

Some organizations donate their historical records to historical societies. A few, like the Y.M.C.A., even establish their own archival collections. Many smaller organizations keep at least some of their own documents. If you're interested in the reform efforts of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union (to end the sale and consumption of alcohol in the U.S.), find out if there was a local or regional chapter in your area which left behind records. Partial records of many organizations and papers of prominent individuals are now available online, a useful alternative to local records if none are available near you. Keep in mind that you will only have available selected records in most cases. In addition to using the Internet, you can call organizations that interest you to find out where their historical records are kept. You can try:

- Churches and synagogues
- Fraternal organizations
- Ethnic societies
- Political parties or other political organizations
- Corporations
- Veterans groups
- Settlement houses or other community centers
- Charities

YOUR LOCAL VIDEO STORE

No kidding! "Casablanca" is part of the history of the 1940s. Produced in 1943, the film is a dramatic look at wartime refugees in Morocco, and it is very revealing of Americans' perspectives on the role of the United States in the world during World War II. Popular films are one kind of "popular culture." Other examples are television and music. So you might want to look in your video store for:

- Popular films

The washing machine was one of many labor-saving devices which helped revolutionize housework. Color lithograph, 1869. Library of Congress.

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- Documentaries (NOT docudramas of historical events)

ART MUSEUMS

Works of art can serve as primary sources and can add a great deal to the visual dimensions of your project. Check out collections with historical significance:

- Paintings
- Sculptures
- Photographs

ALL AROUND YOUR COMMUNITY

History is everywhere! Look around for:

- Personal records, such as diaries and letters
- Family and household records
- Photo albums
- Home movies and videos
- Historical artifacts such as tools or furniture
- Oral history interviews you can conduct yourself
- Places with historic significance (such as monuments to Revolutionary war heroes, or the homes or public buildings such as churches used by prominent reformers.)

NATIONAL ARCHIVES AND RECORDS ADMINISTRATION

A HUGE collection of materials related to all facets of the federal government in the United States. You can write to the National Archives to find out about materials that might be relevant to your topic. But be sure to narrow the topic first. The more specific the questions you ask, the better chance you have of receiving a helpful reply. You can also find a very helpful online service at the National Archives and Records Administration's web site. As part of their "Digital Classroom," which provides services to teachers, there is a new section just for students working on National History Day projects. Follow the user-friendly menu to home in quickly on materials that might be helpful for your specific topic.

Internet address: <www.nara.gov/education/classrm.html>

Mailing address: National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, DC 20408

THE INTERNET

Getting better all the time. Get connected to people, major research library catalogues and online primary sources. It's cheaper than the phone and becoming more user friendly all the time. You can find whole collections of sources, including many world history primary sources in English. By hooking up with the National History Day home page at <http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org>, you can get connected to great online resources, including many online primary sources. Within the National History Day home page are links to:

- The National Archives and Records Administration
- The Library of Congress
- The Smithsonian Institution
- History Education Resources
- U.S. Holocaust Museum
- Colonial Williamsburg and others!

Great places to find primary sources online! But keep in mind that most institutions have only a tiny fraction, usually less than 2%, of their records online.

5. A note on finding sources on international topics:

Many of the "hot links" on the Internet contain collections of translated sources. Many famous texts have also been translated: sacred works like the *Koran*, the *Baghavad gita*, autobiographies of famous individuals, constitutions and works of literature. Memoirs are sometimes published in English, such as the book *Born Red: A Chronicle of the Cultural Revolution* (in China in the 1960s), by Yuan Go. The ancient writings of Plato and Aristotle are also available in translation. Meetings of heads of state and other diplomatic officials have left us documents in English.

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Some countries publish English-language news material for the world; these periodicals can be found in major research libraries.

Also, you can look at the people whose language you don't speak through the observations of English-language speakers. For example, Christian missionaries to other countries and English-speaking soldiers, such as U.S. soldiers in Nicaragua, also left records that provide useful commentary on revolution, reaction, or reform. Oral histories of people who grew up outside the United States can be helpful for more recent decades. The United Nations has many documents in English concerning conditions in particular countries as well as documentation of diplomatic events. You can also get some international perspective on an event by reading English-language newspapers or

After the Battle of Wounded Knee in 1890, Sioux resistance to the United States government came to an end. This is the Sioux camp near Pine Ridge, South Dakota, in 1891. Library of Congress.

magazines. And don't forget, English is one of the primary languages in many corners of the world. You can find English-language sources from places like India (a former colony of Great Britain) and South Africa as well as Australia, Great Britain and Ireland. Of course, if you can read another language, you can cast your net even wider into world history!

6. Interpreting those primary sources

Once you find your primary sources, you have the building blocks of your History Day project. Your interpretation of the primary sources you've uncovered is your History Day project. You will develop a thesis, a main point that summarizes what you think these sources from the past say to us in the present. As you puzzle out the meaning of these sources, here are some things to keep in mind:

Don't forget that the historical event or issue you're researching took place in a paticular historical context. Be sure to review secondary material as you interpret the primary sources. This will help you think through the significance of your topic in history.

Don't assume that your sources contain the "truth" about an event. Historians need to be skeptical about every source they find, including Internet sources. Here are some questions to ask yourself in order to determine just how much a particular source really tells you about the past:

- Why are the sources you've chosen useful for answering the questions you want answered?
- What kind of information is not revealed by the sources you have (and may never be revealed because we can never know all the details of a historical event)?
- Who is the author/producer/storyteller?
- Why did they produce this document, paint this painting, or decide to tell you their story?
- Who was the intended audience?
- What was the purpose of the letter, diary, speech, etc.?
- In what kinds of situations were those songs sung, or those farm implements used?
- What are the key biases you see in this source?
- How much can we find out about the people whose voices do not appear in a particular document, from the perspective of the people who left written information?
- Who preserved this source of historical information and why?
- Do the various primary sources you've collected give you conflicting information? Why?
- How does what you learned from one photograph complement–or contradict–what you learned from a newspaper account?
- What do you know about the larger historical context (you know, the stuff you learned about in history class!) that can help you understand the particulars you find in your primary sources?
- How might the story you're uncovering as you research this topic relate to other episodes in history?

Happy Trails!

WOMEN AND REFORM MOVEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1820-1920:
A Guide to Sources

For many years, history books rarely included much information on women's lives and contributions to society. That has changed in the past 30 years, and history books now acknowledge that women were active participants in history. One of women's greatest contributions in American history is as reformers. After briefly summarizing women's reform activities from the Jacksonian period to the Progressive era, this article will survey the primary sources available to teachers and students interested in exploring American women reformers from 1820 to 1920.

Background

In eighteenth-century America, both men and women contributed as producers to the household economy. In the years leading up to the American Revolution, women participated in crowd actions and supported boycotts of British imports. During the Revolutionary War, they ran farms and managed inns and shops while their husbands were away fighting, and in the immediate postwar years, they gained a civic role as "Republican Mothers," nurturing selfless

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republican citizens for the United States.

In the Jacksonian period, however, women, especially those from the middle and upper classes, experienced a transformation in their roles. As the market economy and industrialization expanded, they became consumers rather than producers. As republicanism lost ground to the notion that people should seek their own self-interests, "Republican Motherhood" faded in importance. Men and women increasingly operated in separate spheres, with men earning money and dealing with the outside world while their wives focused almost exclusively on home and family. Before getting married, a woman might go to work in a factory and perhaps even join a union, but once she wed, society expected her to be, as one historian has noted, a "True Woman." The True Woman was pure, pious, submissive to the male head of household, and most importantly of all, domestic. She turned her home into a refuge from the world for her husband and children, rarely venturing into the world except to visit family or friends or attend church. Even as magazine editors and ministers popularized this idealized domestic role for women, some females began to carve out a role for themselves in public life. In the early 1800s, hundreds of church-based female missionary societies prayed for religious revival in their families and communities. Some of them began to sponsor Sunday schools for poor children, provide asylums for the indigent, and operate orphanages. As the Second Great Awakening picked up steam in the 1820s, many evangelical women began to participate in reform movements

Top: Harriet Tubman led many slaves along the Underground Railroad to freedom. Maryland Historical Society.

Left: Group of suffragists from Delaware march for women's right to vote, 1914. Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

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such as temperance, abolition, and what was called "female moral reform," an anti-prostitution effort. In most cases, these women's organizations were auxiliaries of men's organizations, but female participation soon outstripped that of males. They met regularly, published reports, and petitioned state legislatures. By participating in benevolent and reform associations, these women found a public role which nonetheless conformed to their positions as guardians of home, family, and morality. During the 1840s, some women, frustrated by their experiences in the abolition movement, went even further and founded a women's rights movement, culminating in the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848. During the 1850s, many activists put aside their concerns for women's rights and devoted themselves to the abolitionist cause as the nation became caught up in the swirl of events which led to the Civil War.

Women's participation in antebellum reform movements peaked in the 1830s and 1840s, although they continued to operate many charitable institutions, particularly in cities. During the Civil War, women's charitable work included nursing wounded soldiers on both sides; the US Sanitary Commission was a female benevolent organization which collected medical supplies and provided nurses for the Union Army. Thousands of women flocked to the South during Reconstruction to teach at schools for freed blacks. Despite this activity, the 1860s and 1870s were a relatively quiet period in women's reform.

By contrast, the late 19th and early 20th centuries witnessed an outpouring of female activism. The generation of women born into the middle and upper classes after the Civil War enjoyed unprecedented access to higher education; 40% of college graduates in 1900 were female. Excluded from numerous "male" occupations, many of these women pursued careers as teachers or social workers, and, unlike antebellum reformers, they often chose to not marry and have children. However, they continued the tradition of women taking care of others, trying to improve conditions in slums and factories. They built hospitals, parks, and various other institutions. One of their most notable activities was the establishment of some 400 settlement houses by 1910, the most famous being Hull House, founded in Chicago by Jane Addams. Other women organized the Women's Trade Union League in 1903 to bring middle-class culture to working-class women; the WTUL soon found itself involved in strikes and other union activities.

Social activism drew women into large national organizations, headed by women. The General Federation of Women's Clubs, established in 1890, began as an association of reading clubs but quickly turned to such activities as investigating conditions in slums and lobbying for child labor legislation. By 1920, it had perhaps 1,000,000 members, while the Women's Christian Temperance Union attracted 800,000. Despite its name, the WCTU became a broad-based reform organization, advocating women's suffrage and labor rights.

Like their male counterparts, these Progressive-era female reformers became very active politically, lobbying legislatures and Congress to pass reform laws, fund investigative commissions, and establish agencies to care for women and children. Women often became the heads of these new bureaus. These political activities gave added impetus to the women's suffrage movement, which drew some 2,000,000 female participants.

Of course, not all reformers came from the ranks of middle- and upper-class white women. Free black women worked in the abolition movement; some, such as Sojourner Truth, also joined the women's rights movements. In the post-Civil War era, Mary McLeod Bethune and other black women also participated in educational reforms, campaigned against lynching, and participated in other reform activities. They founded the National Association of Colored Women.

Working-class women, many of them immigrants, also became reformers on occasion. With a few exceptions such as the Knights of Labors, most unions did not welcome female members in the 19th century. The radical Industrial Workers of the World (the Wobblies) welcomed women in the early 20th century, and union organizers such as Mother Jones and Elizabeth Gurley Flynn became labor heroines. The American Socialist Party also allowed female membership; the women's auxiliaries raised money and ran Socialist Sabbath schools. Between work and family, however, most working-class women lacked the time to get too involved in

reform efforts.

In the 20th century, women's participation in reform and indeed, the reform impulse as a whole, reached its zenith in the Progressive era. Women continued to participate in reform and service organizations, and many were drawn into the civil rights and the women's rights movements of the 1950s and 1960s. With more occupations open to women and more married women working outside the home, however, women simply did not have as much time or energy to devote to reform.

Sources for Women and Reform Movements, 1820-1920

The following is not meant to be comprehensive, but it does provide numerous suggestions for sources that teachers and students may use to study women's involvement in reform in the United States. The vast majority of the sources relate to the period from 1820 to 1920.

A. Local Organizations

Women and reform is an outstanding topic for people interested in state and local history. Here are some ideas for how to find primary sources on reform in your area:

- Call women's organizations in your area to find out how to get access to their early records. These could include the local chapters of groups such as the American Association of University Women or the National Federation of Women's Clubs, or there might be organizations specific to your area.
- Check with older local churches which might have had women's groups involved in charitable or reform activities. Ask where the records of those groups are kept.
- Contact the archives/special collections division at nearby university and college libraries, especially of current or former women's colleges. They may have records of female student organizations which worked for reforms in the late 19th and early 20th centuries or the personal papers of female alumnae who participated in reforms or engaged in philanthropy.
- Visit or write to the state archives. Before going, you should read some state history to find out about major reform initiatives in which women were involved, especially those which may have involved the state government such as temperance or child welfare. The state legislature's records may include petitions from women's groups, women reformers may have testified before legislative committees, or there may be records from the Women's Bureau or the Children's Bureau or a similar government agency.
- Contact or visit local and state historical societies or the local history room of your public library. They may have manuscript collections for some of the local reform or charitable organizations. Sometimes they also maintain a newspaper clippings collection (often called a "Vertical File") which may include folders for reform groups.

B. Published Works

For national organizations and individual female reformers, there are ample primary sources available in print and microform. The reformers themselves published many reports or calls for actions. In addition, many kept diaries, created memoirs, and wrote letters which have since been published.

1. Reference Books

The following reference works, available at many university and some public libraries, will help you identify diaries, correspondence, and memoirs by women reformers.

Adamson, Lynda G. *Notable Women in American History: A Guide to Recommended Biographies and Autobiographies*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1999.

Davis, Gwenn, and Beverly A. Joyce. *Personal Writings by Women to 1900: A Bibliography of American and British Writers*. Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press, 1989.

Goodfriend, Joyce D., comp. *The Published Diaries and Letters of American Women: An Annotated Bibliography*. Boston, MA: G.K. Hall, 1987.

2. Published Manuscript Collections

The National Historical Publications and Records Commission, part of the National Archives and Records Administration, has helped fund various editorial projects of the manuscript collections of women reformers or reform organizations. These are a treasure trove of

Sharpshooters firing during the Mexican Revolution. Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

2. As an individual or group assignment, students could pick two revolutions and create a large chart comparing them. Topics covered could include: causes, background of the revolutionaries, methods used by the revolutionaries, how the government reacted, what kind of outside support the revolutionaries had, how long the revolutionaries took to gain power, and what changes did the revolutions cause.
3. Have students assume the role of a person living in a country where a revolution was occurring (pick a country). The students should write letters to relatives in America, describing the situation and explaining why they do or do not support the revolutionaries.
4. Have students assume the role of an American or Soviet diplomat assigned to a nation in the midst of a revolutionary situation. Assign the students to write a report for their nation's leader, assessing the situation and recommending a course of action. Some good situations to pick include: Cuba in 1958, Nicaragua or El Salvador in the late 1970s, Iran in the late 1970s, or Ethiopia during the Eritrean revolt in the 1980s.
5. Invite someone who lived through a revolution to come to your class and discuss his or her experiences with your students. Have your students do some background reading first, so that they can ask good questions.
6. Have students research how a foreign revolution affected your area. They could use old newspapers, interview people, or check municipal records. Some examples could be the effects of the Mexican Revolution on states which border Mexico, the effects of Communist revolutions which led to an influx of immigrants to certain areas, the buildup of military or defense research installations in response to the Cold War, or McCarthyism in your state.

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materials for NHD researchers. Many of these projects have produced print volumes or microfilm collections which you may find at a local university library or may be able to borrow through Inter-Library Loan (if you don't know if your school or public library has Inter-Library Loan, ask the reference librarian). The list below is a sampling of the NHPRC projects, but there are many others:

- The Jane Addams Papers (82 microfilm reels); founder of Hull House
- The Papers of Emma Goldman (69 microfilm reels); anarchist feminist
- The Isabella Beecher Hooker Project (144 microfiche); director of the National Woman Suffrage Association
- The Emily Howland Papers (15 microfilm reels); Quaker abolitionist and educator
- The Papers of John and Lugenia Burns Hope (21 microfilm reels); Lugenia directed a settlement house in Atlanta
- The Papers of Mother Jones (3 volumes); radical labor activist
- The Margaret Sanger Papers (101 microfilm reels); birth control advocate
- The Papers of Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony (45 microfilm reels); suffragists
- Temperance and Prohibition Papers (416 microfilm reels)
- The Papers of the Women's Trade Union League and Its Principal Leaders (131 microfilm reels)

The Schlesinger Library on the History of Women in America at Radcliffe College in Boston has extensive manuscript collections, some of which are microfilmed, as well as oral history collections. Selected microfilm may be borrowed through Inter-Library Loan, or you may order photocopies of specific documents. Check the library's web site at <http://www.radcliffe.edu/schles/libcolls/index.htm>.

A major university library in your state may own one or more of the following microfilm collections:

- *American Women's Diaries*. This series has 3 collections (New England, Southern, and Western) and reproduces manuscript diaries found in repositories all over the country.
- *History of Women*. This collection of 1,248 microfilm reels includes pamphlets, periodicals, manuscripts, and photographs by and about American and European women from the medieval period through 1920.
- *Periodicals on Women and Women's Rights*. This microform collection includes complete runs of such magazines as the General Federation of Women's Clubs' *The Club Woman*, Susan B. Anthony's *The Revolution*, and Margaret Sanger's *Woman Rebel*.

3. Government records

Many state archives have guides to their collections related to women's history, some of which are available on the individual archives' web sites. The National History Day web site <http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org> has links to the various state sites; scroll to the bottom and click on "Research Links" and then on "State-by-State Resources."

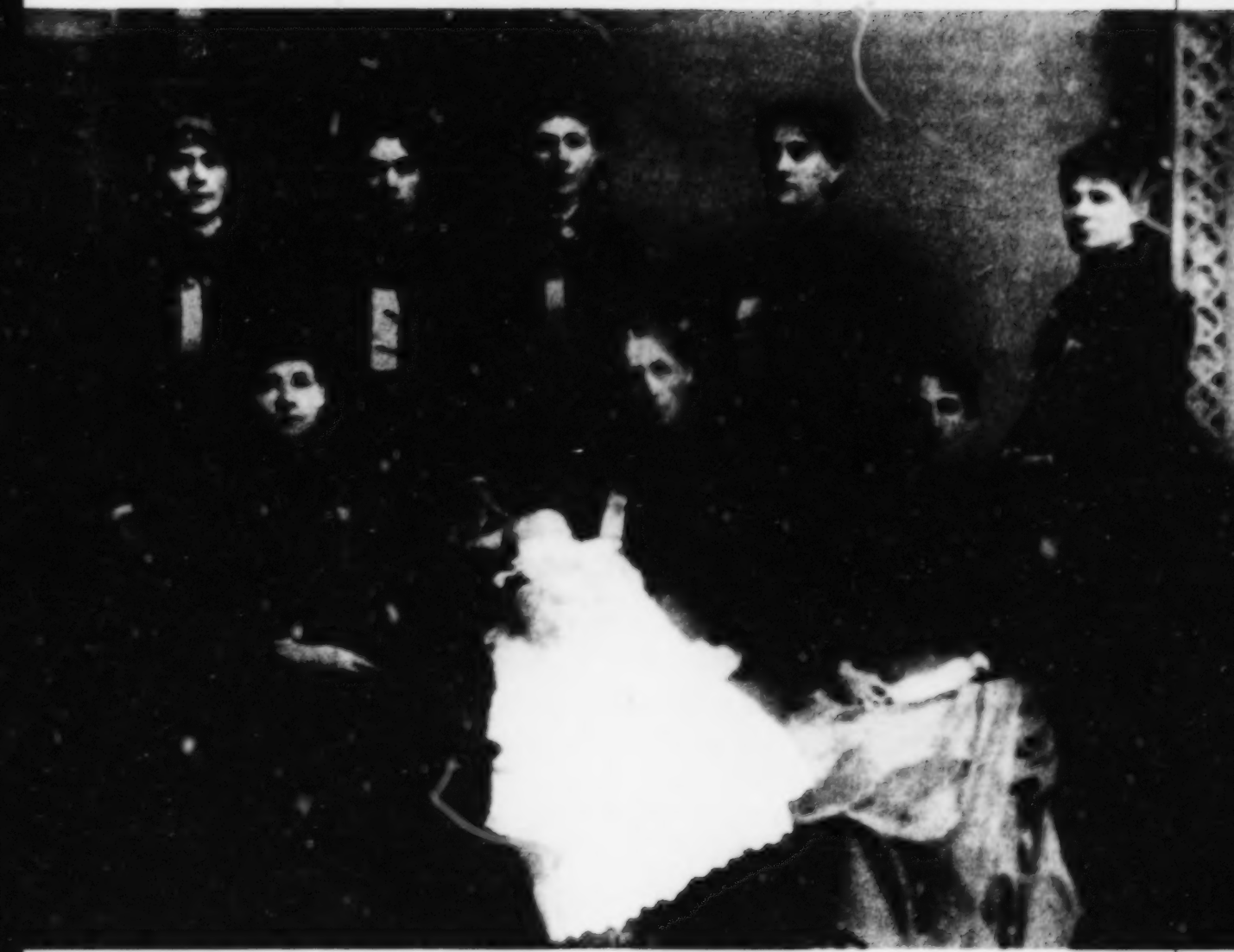
The National Archives has some records which may be helpful. The Records of the Women's Bureau (Record Group 86), 1892-1971, and the Records of the Children's Bureau (Record Group 102), 1908-1969, seem particularly likely to have useful material. For more information, see the National Archives' web site <http://www.nara.gov/>. The following reference book may also help you find relevant materials in the National Archives:

Huls, Mary Ellen. *United States Government Documents on Women, 1800-1990: A Comprehensive Bibliography*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1993.

4. Periodicals

Newspapers covered reform movements, but unless there is an index to your local paper or you know which specific dates you need, it can be extremely time-consuming to use newspapers. However, the *New York Times* is widely available on microfilm and is indexed beginning with the first issue in 1851. Check your local university library.

Some reform organizations published their own magazines, and popular magazines sometimes published articles on reforms and charitable institutions. For 20th-century magazines, use the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* to find citations for articles. For 19th-century magazines, the equivalent is something called *Poole's Index to Periodical Literature*, which is available primarily at university



Female delegates at the Knights of Labor convention, 1886. Unlike many labor organizations in the 19th century, the Knights welcomed women and African Americans. Library of Congress.

libraries. Getting copies of the articles may be a little harder. The library of the flagship university in your state may have a microfilm collection called *American Periodical Series*, which includes all existing issues of most American magazines published in the 18th and 19th centuries. More than 50,000 magazine articles from the 19th century may be found online through the *Making of America* project <http://moa.umdl. umich.edu/>. All issues of *Harper's Weekly*, one of the most important magazines of the late 19th and early 20th century, are available in a keyword-searchable database for the years from 1857 through 1889; the project eventually will include all issues through 1912. The database, *HarpWeek*, may be found at major university libraries.

5. Web Sites with Primary Sources

The web sites listed below include digitized primary sources.

- Agents of Social Change: Lesson Plans and Primary Documents from the 20th Century <http://www.smith.edu/libraries/ssc/curriculum/index.html> This site from the Sophia Smith Collection at Smith College presents selected documents from 6 prominent 20th-century women reformers and 2 national organizations.
- By Popular Demand: " Votes for Women" Suffrage Pictures, 1850-1920 <http://lcweb2.loc.gov/ammem/vfwhtml/vfwhome.html> From the American Memory Project, this site includes 38 pictures and cartoons.
- The Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony Papers Project Online <http://ecssba.rutgers.edu> This Rutgers University site includes suggestions for National History Day students as well as digitized documents.
- The Emma Goldman Papers <http://www.sunsite.erkeley.edu/Goldman/> This University of California at Berkeley site has an excellent introduction to Goldman as well as numerous primary sources, selections from the finding aid to the microfilm collection, and curriculum materials.
- The Model Editions Partnership <http://mep.cla.sc.edu/> This site includes selections from the Margaret Sanger Papers and the Papers of Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony.
- The Suffragists Oral History Project <http://library.berkeley.edu/BANC/ROHO/ohonline/suffragists.html> This Bancroft Library site includes interviews with 7 prominent suffragists and 5 rank-and-file members of the suffrage movement.
- The Triangle Shirtwaist Factory Fire <http://www.ilr.cornell.edu/trianglefire/> Presented by the Kheel Center for Labor-Management Documentation and Archives at Cornell University in cooperation with the Union of Needletrades, Industrial and Textile Employees.
- Votes for Women: Selections from the National American Woman Suffrage Association Collection, 1848-1921 <http://lcweb2.loc.gov/ammem/naw/nawshome.html> From the American Memory Project, this collection includes 167 books, pamphlets, and other sources.
- Women and Social Movements in the United States, 1830-1930 <http://womhist.binghamton.edu/> This wonderful web site from Binghamton University includes 25 projects relating to a wide variety of social movements, with more projects on the way. Each project has an introduction and 15-25 documents. There is also a teacher's corner with suggestions for ways to use the documents in class.
- Worcester Women's History Project <http://www.assumption.edu/HTML/Academic/history/WWHP/hr.html> This site includes sources relating to the 1850 and 1851 women's rights conventions as well as documents relating to other mid-19th century women's reform activities.

C. General Web Sites for Women's History

- A Guide to Uncovering Women's History Resources in Archival Collections <http://www.lib.utsa.edu/Archives/ links.htm> This University of Texas-San Antonio site includes an annotated list of links to selected archival collections organized by state.

- Internet Women's History Sourcebook
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/women/womensbook.html>
This site includes numerous digitized documents and links to other sites.
- National Museum of Women's History
<http://www.nmwh.org/>
This museum has an excellent online exhibit, "Motherhood, Social Service, and Political Reform: Political Culture and Imagery of American Woman Suffrage."
- National Women's Hall of Fame
<http://www.greatwomen.org/>
This site includes brief biographies of the women enshrined in the Hall.
- National Women's History Project
<http://www.nwhp.org/>
This organization, which successfully lobbied to have March declared Women's History Month, provides educational materials and information about the accomplishments of women.
- Places Where Women Made History
<http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/travel/pwwmh/>
This National Park Service site provides information on 74 sites in Massachusetts and New York which relate to the history of women.
- ViVa: A Bibliography of Women's History in Historical and Women's Studies Journals
<http://www.iisg.nl/~womhist/vivahome.html>
A searchable database of articles published since 1975 from the International Institute of Social History.
- Woman Suffrage and the 19th Amendment
<http://www.nara.gov/education/teaching/woman/home.html>
This site is part of the National Archives' Digital Classroom and includes lesson plans.
- The World Wide Web Virtual Library: Women's History
<http://www.iisg.nl/~womhist/vivalink.html>
This is a collection of hyperlinks to other sites.

Ideas for Teaching About Women and Reform

In addition to providing material for NHD projects for your students, the above sources also may be used to teach about women and reform. Here are some ideas for activities:

1. Assign your students to research reforms such as women's suffrage, property rights for married women, or temperance and write a newspaper editorial in favor or opposed to the reform (assign an appropriate year in which they can pretend to be writing the editorial).
2. Have your students debate whether or not women should have the right to vote. You could break the class into four groups. Two of the groups could move back in time to 1850 (one group favoring and one group opposing suffrage for women). Have the other two groups debate the same issue as supporters and opponents of suffrage in 1917. The students should do some research to understand the arguments which people made at each time.
3. Have your students visit the National Women's Hall of Fame and either individually or in groups pick one reformer to research. Have them summarize their research by creating a poster or exhibit or by writing a paper about the woman they have chosen.
4. Have your students research a woman in your state who was prominent in a reform movement or in philanthropy in the 19th or early 20th century. Have them nominate her for the National Women's Hall of Fame (nomination forms are available on the NWHF web site).
5. Have your students research women's participation in reform or charitable organizations in your community and come up with an honor roll of women in your community. Ask a local women's organization such as the Junior League or the American Association of University Women to pay for a plaque to hang in a local government building or the public library to honor these women.
6. As your students research local women reformers, if they come across any buildings which played an important role in their activities, contact your local historic preservation agency and ask about having a historical marker placed at the site. Your students could volunteer to research and design the marker.

POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS OF THE 20TH CENTURY:
A Guide to Sources

Columbus, New Mexico after a raid by Mexican revolutionary Pancho Villa, 1916.Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

The first decade of the twentieth century set the tone for a century in which political revolutions would affect more people more deeply than at any other time in history. In China, the Boxer Rebellion against European influence paved the way for the collapse of the Manchu dynasty and the declaration of the Chinese Republic by Sun Yixian. Subject peoples, sensing the weakness of the Ottoman empire, clamored for independence, while the Young Turks revolted against Ottoman rule at home. Hereros and Hottentots rose up against German control of Southwest Africa, while in the Philippines, independence-minded nationalists fought against US control. In Mexico, peasants took up arms against a government controlled by a small number of landholding families. Meanwhile, the Russian Social Democratic Party met in London to plan a revolution against the tsar.

A rising tide of nationalism fueled much of the political discontent around the globe. During the nineteenth century, Britain, France, Portugal, and other European powers had expanded their empires as they sought raw materials and international prestige. They carved up much of Asia and most of Africa; by 1914, only Liberia and Ethiopia enjoyed complete self-government in Africa. European rule led to the growth of a new urban middle class, educated at European-style schools, who worked for the imperial governments or for businesses which depended on the trade with the imperial nation. They came to resent the arrogance of the Europeans who lived in segregated compounds with their own clubs and churches, who justified imperialism because of the benefits it would bring to the subject peoples but who were reluctant to actually create democratic institutions or share their profits with those same subject peoples. These new middle classes wanted to introduce western institutions and modernize their countries. At first, many of them sought reforms in colonial rule, but when the European powers resisted, they instead began to work for independence.

In eastern and central Europe, nationalistic people chafed under the control of the Austro-Hungarian empire. Their discontent contributed to the outbreak of World War I, which in turn led to the dissolution of both the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires. Germany and Russia also saw their empires dismantled. Consequently, many new nation-states, mostly republics, emerged in Europe, such as Czechoslovakia, Finland, Poland, and Lithuania. In the Middle East, however, where the Arabs had revolted against Ottoman rule during World War I, Britain and France accepted mandates from the League of Nations to take over Iraq, Palestine, Lebanon, and Syria.

World War I also had drastic consequences for Russia, Italy, and Germany. Fighting the war caused tremendous unrest in Russia, giving the Bolsheviks (Communists) an opportunity to take over during the Russian Revolution. The civil war which ensued further exhausted the nation, while the intervention of the Western powers on behalf of the anti-revolutionary White forces caused Communist leaders to be eternally suspicious of the West. The fascist Benito Mussolini gained control of Italy's government by fanning fears of communism and insisting that the Treaty of Versailles cheated Italy out of land which it should have received. Within a few years of being named prime minister in 1922, Mussolini had created a dictatorship. In Germany, the rule of the kaiser ended with the proclamation of a republic in November 1918, just days before Germany agreed to the armistice. The punitive terms of the Treaty of Versailles sparked discontent among the German people who believed they did not bear sole blame for starting the war and opened the way for a

nationalist named Adolf Hitler to gain a large following.

Meanwhile, in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East, nationalistic revolutionary movements were on the rise. In India, Mohandas Gandhi revitalized the independence movement by adopting a program of nonviolent resistance. Elsewhere in Asia, Communist parties, encouraged by the Russian-created Communist International (Comintern), became increasingly active, most notably in China under Mao Zedong. In Africa, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya and Leopold Senghor of Senegal were among many leaders of independence movements who patiently plotted and gathered followers. In Turkey, Kemal Ataturk proclaimed a republic and tried to limit Islamic influence as his nation rapidly modernized. Reza Khan seized power in Persia in 1921, intending to establish a republic. Traditionalists insisted on a dynasty, so instead of leading a republic, he became shah. Meanwhile, on the Arabian peninsula, Ibn Saud gradually drove out what was left of Ottoman rule and established the kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The Great Depression added to the revolutionary fervor in the world. Military dictatorships seized power in many Latin American countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Guatemala. In Spain, economic conditions contributed to the civil war which helped bring the fascist Francisco Franco to power. Most ominously for Europe, the severe effects of the depression in Germany brought Adolf Hitler to the chancellorship in 1933, and within a few months he established a totalitarian state with himself as dictator. Germany's expansion under Hitler set the stage for World War II in Europe. Japan, meanwhile, was expanding into China, seeking more natural resources to fuel its economy, setting the stage for World War II in Asia.

Like World War I, World War II had a tremendous political effect on the world. The European powers, weakened by the war, found themselves in no position to resist independence movements in distant Asia. India, Burma, and Indonesia were among many nations to become independent in the postwar era. In China, the Nationalist government of Jiang Jieshi had worn itself out battling the Japanese and was unable to fend off the Communists of Mao Zedong; the Nationalists went into exile on Taiwan in 1949, leaving China a Communist nation. The Soviet Union suffered crushing losses in people and resources fighting Germany, making Josef Stalin determined to establish a buffer between his nation and Germany. After the war, Soviet influence led to the establishment of Communist governments in much of eastern and central Europe, despite promises of free elections. Germany was divided into Communist East Germany and democratic West Germany, a division which was symbolic of the Cold War which began between the Soviet Union and the Communist world on the one hand and the United States and the democratic capitalist world on the other.

For the second half of the 20th century, the Cold War dominated international relations. The Soviet Union and China sought to expand Communist influence and export revolution, while the United States and its allies reacted by trying to contain it. Nationalistic revolts continued, but the superpowers viewed all conflicts through the lens of the Cold War and vied for influence around the world. In Asia, Korea, Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos became battlegrounds of the Cold

War. Communism got its first toehold in the Americas in 1959, when Fidel Castro overthrew Fulgencio Batista in Cuba and eventually proclaimed himself a Communist. Castro encouraged other Communist movements in Latin America, helping Marxist revolutionaries in Nicaragua, El Salvador, and elsewhere. Many African nations gained their independence in the 1960s, and they too became objects of the competition between the United States and the Soviet Union. Marxists seized control in Angola, Ethiopia, and South Yemen, among other places. Islamic fundamentalist revolutionaries overthrew the American-backed Shah of Iran, who had tried to modernize Iran, and the Middle East was in turmoil, as Islamic fundamentalists sought power elsewhere.

By the late 1970s, Communism reached its high point around the world. When Ronald Reagan became president of the United States in 1981, he declared his belief that Communism could not only be contained, it could be rolled back. The US increased its aid to anti-Communist movements around the globe, and it also embarked on a massive military buildup. The Soviet Union struggled to keep up with this buildup but ultimately failed. From 1989 to 1991, Communist governments throughout eastern Europe and in the Soviet Union crumbled in the face of democratic revolutions. Communist governments remained in power in only a few nations, although one was the world's most populous, China.

The 20th century began with nationalistic revolts against imperialist powers, led by people who in many cases wanted to modernize their countries. After World War I, nationalism continued to be a strong motivator for revolutionaries, although the most important revolution was probably the Communist revolution in Russia, which was not nationalistic. In the 1920s and 1930s, the depression helped bring right-wing dictators to power in Italy, Spain, and Germany as well as many South American countries. After World War II, Communist revolutions predominated, along with another round of revolts against imperialism. The 20th century closed with the overthrow of many Communist governments and with religious fundamentalism playing an increasing role in fueling revolutions against modernizing governments in the Middle East and Asia.

Firing squad during the Mexican Revolution. Courtesy of the Historical Society of Delaware.

Sources for Studying 20th-Century Political Revolutions

Modern communications and transportation ensured that most revolutions of the 20th century attracted considerable attention from outsiders, including businesspeople, diplomats, missionaries, and journalists who lived in or visited the nations involved. The revolutionaries themselves often published newspapers or periodicals, sought support from people elsewhere, and kept extensive records. As a result, the sources for studying 20th-century revolutions are plentiful. However, two problems limit the sources which most American students and teachers will be able to use. First, many of the sources are not in English and have not been translated. Second, many of the sources are available only in foreign countries. Nonetheless, considerable records are available for those interested in studying these revolutions.

Newspapers and Magazines

While language difficulties and problems with access will keep most students from using the newspapers of the countries they are studying, English-language periodicals may be useful. Most local newspapers typically do not provide in-depth coverage of foreign affairs and rely on reports from the wire services, but several newspapers such as *The Los Angeles Times* and *The New York Times* traditionally report extensively on international events. *The New York Times* is available on microfilm at hundreds of university libraries and the central branches of big-city public libraries across the country. It is indexed, allowing efficient searching for relevant stories. England's leading newspaper, *The Times of London*, is

available at numerous university libraries and also is indexed, giving an alternative viewpoint. News magazines such as *Time*, which started publishing in 1923, and *Newsweek* and *U.S. News and World Report*, which both began in the 1930s, also provide extensive coverage of world affairs. They also are available on microfilm at many university and some public libraries. The *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* indexes these magazines.

Published Writings and Memoirs of Individuals

Numerous individuals involved in revolutions have written manifestos, pamphlets, tracts, or other writings as they fomented revolution. Mao, Lenin, Gandhi, and Hitler were among many 20th-century revolutionaries who wrote extensively. People involved in revolutions on all sides as revolutionaries, government officials, eyewitnesses, or victims have written memoirs. Some of the most moving are by those who have been imprisoned, such as Alexander Solzhenitsyn of the Soviet Union and Armando Valladares of Cuba. John Reed, an American, wrote a sympathetic account of the Russian Revolution, *Ten Days That Shook the World*, while Edgar Snow, a Western journalist, gave an insider's view of the Communist movement in China, *Red Star Over China*. Mussolini's son-in-law Count Ciano, who served as his foreign minister, left diaries which have been published. Look for the names of prominent individuals in library catalogues to see if they have written anything; also check the notes and bibliographies of secondary sources for possible leads.

International Government Documents

While documents produced by most foreign governments are not accessible in the United States, students who are researching revolutionary activities which are part of the Cold War will benefit from the resources of the Cold War International History Project (CWIHP), part of the Smithsonian Institution's Woodrow Wilson Center for Advanced International Studies. The CWIHP has organized scholars from all over the globe to gain access to important government documents in Communist or formerly Communist countries and translate the documents into English. The *CWIHP Bulletin* publishes the translated documents, with comments and articles by scholars. All CWIHP publications are available on the CWIHP web site <http://cwihp.si.edu/>.

The Library of Congress has collected some documents from the Russian Archives relating to the entire Soviet period. English translations are available on the Library's web site at <http://lcweb.loc.gov/exhibits/archives/intro.html>.

The British government's diplomatic records are also useful, particularly since they are in English. Britain's empire extended throughout the world during the first half of the 20th century, and its large diplomatic corps reported with great thoroughness on events throughout the world. Many of these records have been published in bound volumes by the British government or in microform collections by private publishers. They are available only at major university research libraries, although students may be able to borrow specific items through Inter-Library Loan. Among the collections are:

- *British Documents on Foreign Affairs: Reports and Papers from the*

C-SPAN in the Classroom

C-SPAN in the Classroom is a free service for educators that offers support for teaching with C-SPAN. Members receive advance programming notification, print materials, invitations to special events and opportunities to apply for fellowships and grants. C-SPAN, in addition to presenting gavel-to-gavel coverage of the U.S. House and Senate, offers a variety of other programming – books and history. The network's special history series for 2001, "American Writers: A Journey Through History," airs from March to December and will explore the lives and works of selected American writers. The 1999 series, "American Presidents," is archived online.

C-SPAN is a non-profit, commercial-free network, a public service of the cable industry. The programming is available on three cable television channels (C-SPAN, C-SPAN2 and C-SPAN3), online at <www.c-span.org> and soon, nationally through satellite radio. The network's mission since its founding in 1979 is to give viewers, teachers, and students direct, unmediated, balanced access to the people, places, ideas, and issues in the worlds of books, public policy and history.

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Sign up for C-SPAN in the Classroom at <www.c-span.org/classroom/enroll> or, if you would like more information, contact C-SPAN at educate@c-span.org or call the Educators' Hotline at 800-523-7586.

Foreign Office Confidential Print. This collection includes 13 series of microfilm and covers the years 1850-1950. These are diplomatic dispatches and other papers created by British diplomats throughout the world which were intended for limited circulation within the British government. The diplomats based their reports on a wide variety of sources including newspapers, documents created by the governments of other countries, pamphlets, interviews, and personal discussions. Many of the documents they used were translated and included as addenda to their reports.

- *Documents on British Foreign Policy, 1919-1939*. This series of books, issued by Her (or His) Majesty's Stationers Office (HMSO) roughly corresponds to *Foreign Relations of the United States* (see below) in terms of what it includes.
- *Documents on British Policy Overseas*, also issued by HMSO, covers the years 1945-1955.

United States Government Documents

The records of the United States government relating to revolutions of the 20th century are immense. American diplomats around the world sent frequent reports of conditions in the countries which they served, and the State Department, the Central Intelligence Agency, the White House, and other agencies constantly assessed global events and decided on US actions. Presidents discussed foreign policy in their speeches and press conferences, and their press secretaries issued statements on their behalf.

Published volumes of US government documents are available at federal repository libraries. There are 1,350 such libraries nationwide, which collect all or selected volumes of government documents. These include many university libraries, state government libraries, and major public libraries. To find the nearest repository library, see GPO Access <http://www.access.gpo.gov/su_docs/locators/findlibs/index.html>.

There are several series of published volumes of US government documents of particular interest for studying 20th-century revolutions.

1. *Foreign Relations of the United States* (previously called *Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States*). Created by the State Department, this series began in 1870 and continues through the Lyndon Johnson administration; historians are at work on the volumes for the Nixon administration. It includes the official documentary record of major US foreign policy activities and brings together material from the State Department, the Department of Defense, intelligence agencies, and related agencies as well as some private papers of individuals. Volumes for 1870 through 1946 are included in a major microform collection, *The Microbook Library of American Civilization* (often abbreviated LAC), found at many university libraries. Selected recent volumes are available online at <http://www.state.gov/www/about_state/history/frusonline.html>.
2. *The Public Papers of the Presidents of the United States* includes public messages, public statements, proclamations, executive orders, and press conference transcripts for Presidents Hoover, Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy, Johnson, Nixon, Ford, Carter, Reagan, Bush, and Clinton. The volumes are organized chronologically. Though not devoted exclusively to foreign affairs, there should be some material of interest. Some volumes for Presidents Reagan and Bush are available online through their presidential libraries (see below).
3. Students may get a sense of the information and propaganda put out by foreign governments through a series created by the US government's Foreign Broadcast Information Service (FBIS). The FBIS monitored foreign radio broadcasts and issued daily reports with transcripts or summaries of the broadcasts from 1947 until the late 1980s (or later in the case of the Soviet Union). These reports covered the Soviet Union and East Europe; Asia and the Pacific; the Middle East, Africa, & West Europe; and Latin America.

The Central Intelligence Agency has an online Electronic Document Release Center <http://www foia.ucia.gov/>. This site includes more than 19,000 pages of CIA reports, many relating to the Soviet Union or Communist bloc nations. You can also find information about the 1954 coup in Guatemala, human rights in Latin America, Ethel and Julius Rosenberg, the Bay of Pigs invasion, and the U-2 spy plane incident, among other topics. The text is searchable by various means, including full-text searches.

The National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) is responsible for preserving and making accessible the records of the State

Department and other government agencies. The presidential libraries, which are part of NARA, house the presidential papers of our chief executives, beginning with Herbert Hoover.

Before contacting NARA or a presidential library, researchers need to have a very good idea of exactly what materials they want. Finding aids on the institutions' web sites can help in locating specific collections, and the web sites typically include some digitized documents as well. Here are some useful web sites for NARA and the presidential libraries:

- NARA home page <http://www.nara.gov/>
  This site provides information about NARA's holdings and policies, access to finding aids, links to the presidential libraries and NARA's regional archives, and other information. One finding aid which may prove especially useful to students of the Cold War is "An Introduction to National Archives Records Relating to the Cold War," which can be found at <http://www.nara.gov/publications/rip/rip107/rip107.html>.
- NARA Archival Information Locator (NAIL) <http://www.nara.gov/nara/nail.html>
  This is a searchable database of collection-level and sometimes item-level descriptions and also provides ready access to the thousands of documents (including photographs) which NARA has digitized and made available online. Keep in mind that these represent only a small fraction of NARA's holdings. Using NAIL can be a little tricky, so be sure to read the instructions.
- Herbert Hoover Presidential Library and Museum <http://hoover.nara.gov/>
  This site features virtual exhibits relating to Hoover's life as well as information about the library.
- Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library and Museum <http://www.fdrlibrary.marist.edu/>
  This site includes 10,000 digitized documents. Among them are German Diplomatic Files, Vatican Files (US-Vatican relations during World War II), and the Safe Files (US- British relations). Also included are thousands of photographs, political cartoons, transcripts of FDR's fireside chats, and audio clips of selected speeches.
- Truman Presidential Museum and Library <http://www.trumanlibrary.org> and <http://www.whistlestop.org>
  The Truman Library's Project Whistlestop presents some of the library's collections online. Among the tens of thousands of documents are large collections relating to the Truman Doctrine, the Marshall Plan, NATO, and the Korean War.
- Dwight D. Eisenhower Library and Museum <http://redbud.lbjlib.utexas.edu/eisenhower/ddlehp.htm>
  The Eisenhower Library's online collections include numerous documents about Sputnik and the space race, the U-2 spy plane incident, Nautilus subs, the interstate highway system, and the St. Lawrence Seaway.
- John Fitzgerald Kennedy Library and Museum <http://www.jfklibrary.org/>
  This site includes some Kennedy speeches and photographs and materials about the Berlin and Cuban Missile Crises.
- Lyndon Baines Johnson Library and Museum <http://www.lbjlib.utexas.edu/>
  The digitized collections include all 99 National Security Action Memoranda issued by LBJ and 50 significant days from the president's daily diary.
- Nixon Presidential Materials <http://www.nara.gov/nixon/>
  This collection includes the historical materials created and received by the Nixon White House. It is housed at the National Archives facility in College Park, Maryland. The Richard Nixon Library and Birthplace in California is not part of the National Archives.
- Gerald R. Ford Library and Museum <http://www.lbjlib.utexas.edu/ford/index.html>
  There are some Vietnam War documents and photographs available online.
- Jimmy Carter Library <http://carterlibrary.galileo.peachnet.edu/>
  Online collections at the Carter Library include photos, speeches, the president's daily diary, and the diary of an American held hostage in Iran.
- Ronald Reagan Presidential Library <http://www.reagan.utexas.edu>
  This site includes some photos and digitized versions of the *Public Papers of the President* for Reagan's first term.
- George Bush Presidential Library and Museum <http://bushlibrary.tamu.edu/>
  Among the online documents are

national security reviews and the *Public Papers of the President*.

Most students should be able to find plenty of primary sources between the published volumes in federal repository libraries and the online documents from NARA and the presidential libraries. Those seeking additional information may be able to find it in some major microform collections available at a few large university libraries. These records are extremely detailed, and students should have a very solid understanding of their topics before they try to use them. Among existing collections are:

- *CIA Research Reports*, 1946-1976
- *Confidential US Diplomatic Post Records*, 1920s-1940s (varies by country)
- *Confidential US State Department Central Files*, mid-1900s, especially 1945-1959 (varies by country)
- *Confidential US State Department Special Files*, mid-1940s to mid-1950s (Asia)
- *Documents of the National Security Council*, 1947-1977
- *National Security Files*, 1961-1969
- *OSS/State Department Intelligence and Research Reports*, 1940s
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to Political Relations between Russia/Soviet Union and Other States*, 1910-1929
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to Political Relations between the United States and Russia/Soviet Union*, 1910-1944
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Albania*, 1910-1954
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Austria*, 1910-1929, 1945-1954
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Bulgaria*, 1910-1954
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of China*, 1910-1949
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Czechoslovakia*, 1910-1944, 1955-1959
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of East Germany*, 1950-1959
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Finland*, 1910-1954
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Greece*, 1910-1944, 1950-1954
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Hungary*, 1912-1959
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Poland*, 1916-1944, 1950-1959
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Romania*, 1910-1959
- *Records of the Department of State Relating to the Internal Affairs of Yugoslavia*, 1910-1959
- *Records of the Office of Chinese Affairs*, 1945-1955

This list is not exhaustive.

Oral History

Since many people who witnessed or were involved in 20th century revolutions are still alive, students may be able to find appropriate people to interview. Contact ethnic organizations or ethnic churches in your state for people from the country you are studying. Ask if they can put you in touch with people who lived in the country during the revolution in which you are interested.

Americans who lived abroad are another possibility. These could include diplomats, retired missionaries, people who studied at foreign schools, businesspeople, journalists, and volunteers. These people can be hard to track down, because there are few directories. For events since 1960, your best bet may be the National Peace Corps Association, which is made up of former Peace Corps volunteers and has more than 130 chapters nationwide. These chapters are organized either by country of service or by geographical location in the U.S. and one of the organization's missions is to share information about foreign lands. To see if there is a chapter on your country or in your state, go to http://www.rpcv.org/ and click on Affiliate Groups; many of the chapters have web sites or e-mail addresses. Another good source is the American Foreign Service Association's Speaker Bureau <http://www.diplomatsonline.org/>.

Instead of doing oral history interviews themselves, students may take advantage of oral history interviews conducted by others. Most presidential libraries have extensive oral history collections, typically consisting of interviews with former presidential advisers and White House staff members. These interviews often dealt with foreign affairs. Transcripts, and sometimes the tapes themselves, are available for borrowing through Inter-Library Loan services at public libraries. The presidential libraries have guides to their oral history collections and sometimes digitized transcripts available online. Check out the following sites:

- List of Oral History Transcripts at the Herbert Hoover Presidential Library & Museum <http://www.ecommcode2.com/hoover/research/historicalma

terials/oral.html>

- List of Interview Transcripts at the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library <http://www.fdrlibrary.marist.edu/Collect1.html#interview transcripts>
- Oral History Interviews at the Truman Presidential Museum and Library <http://www.trumanlibrary.org/oralhist/oral_his.htm>
- List of Oral History Transcripts at the Dwight D. Eisenhower Library <http://www.eisenhower.utexas.edu/oha.html>
- List of Oral History Interviews at the John Fitzgerald Kennedy Library <http://www.jfklibrary.org/oralhist.htm>
- Oral History Home Page at the Lyndon Baines Johnson Library and Museum <http://www.lbjlib.utexas.edu/johnson/archives.hom/biopage.asp>
- List of Oral Histories in the Gerald R. Ford Library <http://www.ford.utexas.edu/library/oralhist.htm>
- Oral History Transcripts from the Jimmy Carter Library <http://carterlibrary.galileo.peachnet.edu/library/oral.htm>

Other Useful Web sites

- Anarchy Archives <http://dwardmac.pitzer.edu/Anarchist_Archives/archivehome.html>
  This site focuses on the late 19th and 20th centuries and includes some documents.
- Avalon Project: Documents in Law, History, and Diplomacy <http://www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/avalon.htm>
  Yale Law School has digitized numerous treaties and other documents relating to diplomacy. Major collections include: American Diplomacy, The Cold War and Cold War Diplomacy, and the US, Southeast Asia, and the Pacific Area, 1950-1999.
- Country Studies/Area Handbooks <http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/>
  These online books cover 101 countries and regions. They are published in hard copy by the Federal Research Division and sponsored by the US Army.
- Internet Modern History Sourcebook <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/modsbook.html>
  Maintained by Paul Halsall, this megasite includes numerous documents and links to other sites.
- Marxist Internet Archive <http://www.marxists.org/index.htm>
  This site includes many transcriptions of the writings of well-known Marxists such as Engels and Trotsky as well as those of less famous Marxists. It should be used with caution, as it openly proclaims its Marxist orientation.
- National Security Archive <http://www.gwu.edu/~nsarchiv/>
  This private organization uses the Freedom of Information Act to request US government documents which were formerly classified. It has published numerous books and document collections, and some documents are available online.
- Office of the Historian of the US State Department <http://www.state.gov/www/about_state/history/index.html>
  This site includes a listing of all former US ambassadors and high-ranking State Department officials, lists of all official foreign trips by US presidents and secretaries of state, lists of all official visits to the US by foreign heads of state, and a timeline of US diplomatic history.
- Parallel History Project on NATO and the Warsaw Pact <http://www.isn.ethz.ch/php/>
  Similar to the Cold War International History Project, this project is in its early stages and has only a few documents online.
- Resources for the Study of International Relations and Foreign Policy <http://www.mtholyoke.edu/acad/intrel/feros-pg.htm#documents>
  Vincent Ferraro of Mount Holyoke College has collected numerous documents relating to foreign affairs.

Ideas for Teaching about Revolutions of the 20th Century

1. Assign your students either as individuals or in groups to research a colony in Asia or Africa, why and by what nation it was colonized, and how it ultimately gained its independence. Each student or group should research a different colony. The students could present their findings in papers, posters, exhibits, or even in dramatic performances. Alternatively, you could divide your students into four groups and assign each group a different region (Africa, India, Southeast Asia, and Latin America) and ask each group to create a presentation about how imperialism affected this region in

ANALYZING AND USING STATISTICS to Study the Past

There are many types of statistics. Polls measure public opinion using surveys. Government agencies collect and compile various types of quantitative information, including population, economic, and demographic data. Businesses keep a close watch on financial data.

Compiled over years, decades, or even centuries, statistics can help us to measure and understand change over time. And history, after all, is about change over time. This lesson is meant to suggest ways of teaching students to use statistics to study history and to present statistical information in different formats. It also provides ideas about where to find historical statistical data. You might want to work with a mathematics teacher in using this lesson.

Objectives

- To evaluate statistical information presented in tables.
- To analyze cause-and-effect relationships and change over time using statistics.
- To determine the best ways of presenting quantitative information for historical study.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- Utilize visual and mathematical data presented in charts, tables, pie and bar graphs, flow charts, Venn diagrams, and other graphic organizers (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Comprehension, Standard 2F).
- Analyze cause-and-effect relationships and multiple causation, including the importance of the individual, the influence of ideas, and the role of chance (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Analysis and Interpretation, Standard 3E).
- Interrogate historical data; identify the gaps in the available records, marshal contextual knowledge and perspectives of the time and place, and construct a sound historical interpretation (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Research Capabilities, Standard 4C and D).

Background

This particular lesson uses census statistics to focus on Summit County, Ohio, from 1850 to 1930, a period when the Industrial Revolution left an indelible mark on the county. Akron, the county seat, was established in 1825 along the route of the Ohio and Erie Canal, which opened two years later. At 1,200 feet above sea level, Akron enjoyed access to water power which helped fuel early industrialization. Clay mined nearby provided the raw materials for factories producing brick, pottery, and sewer pipes, while farms in the surrounding area sent wheat to Akron's flour mills. The city later became a major producer of oatmeal. In 1871, Benjamin Goodrich opened a rubber factory in Akron, laying the foundation for the city to become the "Rubber Capital of the World," home to Goodrich, Goodyear, General Tire, and Firestone. Akron's factories also produced other manufactured goods. Urbanization and industrialization transformed Akron and Summit County.

Activity 1: Analyzing Statistics

Make photocopies of the pages entitled, "Historical Statistical Analysis Worksheet" and "Summit County, Ohio, 1850-1930." Tell your students about the early history of Summit County, Ohio. Then break them into five small groups and distribute the photocopies to each group. If you think your students can handle it, ask each group to fill out the worksheets for all the tables and figure out the ways in which the information in each table might be related to the information in the other tables. Ask each group, using the tables and their knowledge of the events going on in America during the period covered, to develop its own explanation of how and why Summit County changed from 1850 to 1930. The groups could present their history of Summit County in a group oral report, in a paper, or on a poster. If your students are not particularly comfortable with numbers, break the assignment into smaller tasks for each group. Assign each group one table to analyze using the worksheet and then report back to the class about it. As a class, discuss how each table is related to the others and develop an explanation of the changes in Summit County.

Activity 2: Displaying Statistics

Keep students in the same groups as in Activity 1. Ask each group to

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pick out two or three types of data from the tables which they believe to be related, such as the total population, manufacturing wages, and the foreign-born population. Each group should then create three different ways of organizing and displaying its data, such as tables, line graphs, bar graphs, pie charts, Venn diagrams, or flow charts. Then have each group analyze its own or another group's visual presentations, assessing the strengths and weaknesses of each display and deciding which one is the most effective. Have them explain their choice to the rest of the class.

Enrichment and Extension

1. You could personalize this assignment by creating or having your students create a similar set of tables for your own county using census data, available online (see below) or in federal government depository libraries. Or create an entirely different set of tables based on one or more of the statistical compilations described below.
2. Ask students to bring in visual presentations of statistics which they find in current newspapers or magazines. These can be about the economy, elections, polls, or even sports. Have them analyze the statistics using the worksheet and then write a short paper explaining the statistics and evaluating the effectiveness of the visual presentation.

This graphic by the French engineer Charles J. Minard is considered one of the greatest ever created. It shows how the number of soldiers in Napoleon's army fell drastically during his invasion of Russia and subsequent retreat. In June 1812, an army of 422,000 crossed the Russian-Polish border, represented by the thick stream on the upper left. By the time the army reached Moscow in October, Napoleon was down to 100,000 troops. The retreat in below-zero temperatures was equally disastrous, and only 4,000 of the original soldiers made it back to the Russian-Polish border, joined just before the border by an additional 6,000 soldiers. From E. J. Marey, *La Méthode Graphique* (Paris, 1885), 73; reprinted in Edward R. Tufte, *The Visual Display of Quantitative Information* (Cheshire, CT: Graphics Press, 1983), 41.

Suggestions for Using Statistics for National History Day Entries

Statistical information can be very good evidence to use in History Day projects, helping students avoid vague generalizations. Paper writers can make their points stronger by incorporating exact numbers into their texts. For example, rather than writing, "Many voters . . ." it is much more persuasive to write, "Sixty-nine percent of voters. . . ." Bar graphs, line graphs, pie charts, and similar visual organizers may be incorporated into exhibits and documentaries. It is more effective to have a graph demonstrating how stock prices fell in 1929 than it is to write that prices fell by X%. Students in performances also can use statistics in their scripts or in visual aids, but they should keep dialogue realistic and easy to pronounce. People normally do not go around observing that "Some 67.6% of people. . . "; instead, they say, "Two-thirds of people. . . ." Performers will find it is much easier to say two-thirds than it is 67.6%, and it takes less time, too.

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Historical Statistical Analysis Worksheet

I. BASICS

1. How is the statistical information presented?

   ☐ table ☐ line graph ☐ bar graph ☐ pie chart ☐ other

2. Study the elements of the presentation, such as the title, the headings on columns or rows, and the labels on axes of a graph. Answer the following questions:

   a. What is being measured?

   b. In what units is it being measured?

   c. Are there any significant gaps in the data, such as time periods for which there is no information? Is any explanation offered for the missing data?

3. Historical statistics describe events which happened in a particular place and time.

   a. What geographic area is being described in this presentation?

   b. What time period does it cover?

4. Historians always question their sources, so ask questions about how this information was compiled.

   a. What is the source of the information in this presentation?

   b. How was it compiled? If there is no explanation in a note or elsewhere, how do you think it probably was compiled?

   c. Did the way this information was compiled create any biases? For example, a table about average annual income will look very different if it was compiled by surveying the members of a country club, who tend to be well off, than if it was compiled using tax records which cover a much broader range of people.

II. ANALYSIS

A. What Happened?

5. How do the numbers change over time? Do you notice any patterns? Depending on the data, you might find that whatever is being measured increases or decreases; that the rate of increase or decrease may be steady, cyclical, or inconsistent; that the distribution becomes more equal or more unequal; etc. List the patterns that you see in your data:

6. Using the information in the presentation, can you generate any additional statistics (such as percentages or per capita figures) which might help you see patterns? What additional statistics can you create based on the information you have? What do you learn from those statistics?

B. Why Did It Happen?

7. Pay close attention to when changes occur in the patterns you described in no. 5. Are there any points at which the numbers suddenly rise or fall or start rising or falling at a much greater rate than earlier? Describe them.

8. If you have several tables or sets of related data, try to find some linkages between the patterns in one set and those in other sets.

   a. Which data sets follow similar patterns?

   b. Which ones share critical points as described in no. 7?

9. Keep in mind that two statistics may follow the same patterns without actually being related, or, as statisticians put it, correlation is not causation. For many years, polio cases and ice cream sales both traditionally rose in the summer, but that did not mean that ice cream caused polio. Use your common sense and also any other historical knowledge you may have to determine if any of the linkages you see could be described as cause-and-effect relationships or if they might share a common cause. Also consider if there are any other possible explanations for what occurred.

   a. Which relationships are cause-and-effect (i.e., one data set caused or contributed to another)?

   b. Which relationships are based on having a common cause?

   c. Which relationships may have other explanations? (Explain).

III. SUMMARY

10. Write a paragraph describing and explaining the statistical information you've analyzed. Draw conclusions about what the statistics mean.

WHERE to FIND STATISTICS

1. US Census Bureau publications

The Census Bureau produces the decennial population censuses and an enormous number of other statistical compilations relating to the economy and other topics. Every state will have at least several federal government document repository libraries which receive Census Bureau publications. You also may borrow microfilm of the censuses through 1920 via the National Archives' Microfilm Rental Program. See the National Archives' web site <http://www.nara.gov/publications/microfilm/micrent.html> for details. For detailed information about census publications, the best guides are:

Cook, Kevin L. *Dubester's U.S. Census Bibliography with SuDocs Class Numbers and Indexes*. Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited, 1996.

United States. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Bureau of the Census Catalog of Publications, 1790-1972*. Washington, DC: US Department of Commerce, Social and Economic Statistics Administration, Bureau of the Census, 1974.

Two extremely useful publications which most university and many public libraries will have are:

United States. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1975.

You may find other editions of this publication with slightly different names. It provides tables of statistical information relating to population, agriculture, the economy, education, and other topics covering broad spans of years. The data primarily was collected by government agencies.

United States. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States*. Washington, DC: GPO, 1879-present.

This is an annual publication with quite detailed information about an extraordinary variety of topics. The tables often provide data for the previous twenty or more years.

2. International statistical publications

There are several compilations of statistics for world history, similar to *Historical Statistics of the United States*. They are available primarily at university libraries, although major public libraries may have copies. The following volumes were all edited by Brian R. Mitchell.

European Historical Statistics, 1750-1975. 2nd rev. ed. New York, NY: Facts on File, 1980.

International Historical Statistics: Africa, Asia, & Oceania, 1750-1993. 3d ed. London: Macmillan Reference; New York, NY: Stockton Press, 1998.

International Historical Statistics: Europe, 1750-1993. 4th ed. London: Macmillan Reference; New York, NY: Stockton Press, 1998.

International Historical Statistics: The Americas, 1750-1993. 4th ed. London: Macmillan Reference; New York, NY: Stockton Press, 1998.

3. Internet sites

Fedstats <http://www.fedstats.gov>

This U.S. government site provides links and information about statistics from more than 100 U.S. federal agencies.

Geostat: Interactive Data Center <http://fisher.lib.virginia.edu/active_data/index.html>.

The Geospatial and Statistical Data Center at the University of Virginia provides interactive databases of economic, education, social/demographic, and international data. It is also home to the U.S. Historical Census Data Browser listed below.

Statistical Abstract of the United States <http://www.census.gov/prod/www/statistical-abstract-us.html>.

Volumes for 1995 to 1999 are available for downloading in pdf files.

United Nations Statistics Division: Social Indicators <http://www.un.org/Depts/unsd/social/>.

This is an online database of current social indicators for more than 200 nations.

United Nations Statistics Division: National publications and statistical yearbooks, current statistics and Internet sites <http://www.un.org/Depts/unsd/refs3.htm>.

This page links to the statistical sites of governments around the world.

United States Historical Census Data Browser <http://fisher.lib.virginia.edu/census/>.

This includes county-level data for each decennial population census from 1790 to 1970.

Summit County, Ohio, 1850-1930

Summit County, Ohio, 1850-1930

Table 1.--Population

Year	Total Population	Race		Nativity	
		White	Black	Native-born	Foreign-born
1850	27,485	27,364	121	24,745	2,740
1860	27,346	27,251	88	23,863	3,483
1870	34,674	34,375	299	28,613	6,061
1880	43,788	43,397	384	36,717	7,071
1890	54,089	53,538	551	45,103	8,986
1900	71,715	70,540	1,175	61,680	10,035
1910	108,253	107,480	757	88,292	19,961
1920	286,065	279,340	6,577	230,752	48,588
1930	344,131	331,394	12,480	291,290	40,104

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table 2.--Manufacturing

Year	No. of establish ments	No. of people employed				Total wages (in dollars)	Total capital invested (in dollars)	Value of products (in dollars)
		Adult males	Adult females	Children and Youth	Total			
1850					1,239		839,896	1,833,206
1860	202	694	226		920	249,364	858,137	1,528,072
1870	513	3,107	260	60	3,427	1,528,610	4,289,047	8,769,486
1880	365	3,508	139	258	3,905	1,622,609	6,317,621	10,484,576
1890	452	6,425	800	39	7,264	3,600,564	15,206,851	14,224,367
1900	599	9,235	1,878	78	11,191	4,887,124	29,593,083	29,404,004
1920	405				71,050	102,708,324		595,108,643
1929	359				67,298	107,253,929		599,053,295

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table 3--Agriculture

Year	No. of Farms	Improved Land (acres)	Unimproved Land (acres)	Cash Value of Farms	Value of Farm Production (dollars)	Value of Livestock (dollars)	Corn (bu.)	Wheat (bu.)	Oats (bu.)
1850	2,329	158,901	77,400	5,653,257		725,321	365,762	325,642	225,998
1860	2,181	174,073	60,134	9,579,953		1,132,323	521,953	86,131	254,010
1870	2,204	171,255	51,530	14,527,726	2,511,048	1,563,462	688,651	337,931	435,771
1880	2,850	211,031	48,373	16,651,135	2,117,287	1,268,894	642,667	573,678	611,236
1890	2,840	192,790	43,664	17,166,615	1,925,710	1,315,750	682,869	772,156	597,984
1900	2,871	162,020	76,796	14,129,160	2,307,603	1,402,483	696,000	589,540	850,160
1910	2,959	163,191	64,214	18,883,961	2,533,862	1,869,420	708,428	506,051	782,368
1920	2,529	147,856	56,354	43,149,320	4,993,075	2,812,734	702,282	462,814	487,621
1930	1,579	123,257		29,110,237	1,186,832	1,446,255	285,121	167,016	273,779

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table 4--Religion

	1850	1860	1870	1890		1906	1916
	No. Church Organizations (Seating Capacity)	No. Church Organizations (Seating Capacity)	No. Church Organizations (Seating Capacity)	No. Church Organizations (Seating Capacity)	No. Members or Communicants	No. Members or Communicants	No. Members or Communicants
All denominations	53 (19,400)	5 (17,625)	71 (25,000)	111 (34,495)	16,826	26,505	65,029
Baptists	8 (2,250)	4 (1,150)	5 (1,900)	2 (700)	331	909	1,930
Catholic	1 (500)	2 (600)	2 (1,100)	10 (2,210)	3,803	3,709	25,230
Congregationalists	12 (4,500)	9 (2,900)		10 (3,530)	2,055	2,696	2,623
Disciples of Christ				9 (2,375)	1,277	3,228	5,348
Dunker				1 (500)	141	215	285
Evangelical				6 (2,975)	767	769	891
Jewish				1 (200)	127	50	600
Lutheran	3 (1,350)	4 (1,200)	3 (1,000)	8 (2,825)	1,741	2,806	4,355
Methodist Episcopal	13 (5,000)	17 (5,325)	17 (6,800)	23 (7,785)	2,453	4,411	7,346
Presbyterian	6 (2,300)	6 (1,650)	4 (1,600)	6 (1,615)	453	965	2,158
Protestant Episcopal	4 (1,250)	5 (1,500)		4 (1,525)	491	1,257	2,459
Reformed Church (German)	4 (1,300)	5 (1,800)	11 (2,400)	10 (3,750)	1,874	2,767	4,545
United Brethren			6 (1,800)	13 (2,275)	795	996	1,606
Other	2 (950)	4 (1,500)	23 (8,400)	8 (2,230)	518	1,727	5,578

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table 5.--Students

Year	No. School-Age Children	Total No. of Students	No. of Students by Nativity		No. of Students by Race and Gender					
					White			Black		
			US	Foreign	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
1850	10,533	8,726	8,413	313	4,581	4,118	8,699	11	16	27
1870	9,998	7,521	7,148	373	3,779	3,716	7,495	16	10	26
1890	18,023	11,177			5,637	5,453	11,090	37	50	87
1910	50,002	17,048								
1920	61,380	38,013								
1930	87,241	69,617								

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

The Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre. Musée Cantonal des Beaux-Arts, Lausanne.

THE SAINT BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY MASSACRE: A Religious Reaction in 16th Century France

by Meredith McGann, Project Assistant, National History Day

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History is filled with religious reactions. The Crusades were a reaction to the spread of Islam, the Protestant Reformation was a reaction to corruption in the Catholic Church, and the Counter-Reformation was a reaction to the Protestant Reformation. The French Wars of Religion were a reaction to the development of Calvinism, a form of Protestantism that believed in the predestination of human souls.

Objectives

- To explain the role of religion in causing conflicts in 16th-century France.
- To describe the events of the Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre.
- To analyze a historical document.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- The student understands the Renaissance, Reformation, and Catholic Reformation. (World History Standards, Era 6: The Emergence of the First Global Age, 1450-1770, Standard 2B).
- Reconstruct the literal meaning of a historical passage; read historical narratives imaginatively (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Comprehension, Standard 2A and C).
- Consider multiple perspectives; analyze cause-and-effect relationships and multiple causation, including the importance of the individual, the influence of ideas, and the role of chance (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Analysis and Interpretation, Standard 3D and E).

Background

During the mid-1500s, a growing number of people in France converted to Protestantism. Known as Huguenots, these French Protestants were Calvinists, and they constituted perhaps 10% of France's population by the early 1560s. Among others, they attracted numerous noblemen, including some members of the Bourbon and Montmorency families. The vast majority of France's population and some members of the nobility, most notably the Guise family, remained Catholic.

In 1560, Charles IX, then only 10 years old, became king of France. His mother, Catherine de Médicis, served as regent, and she was the real ruler of France for the next few years. One of her chief advisers was a man named Anne de Montmorency, who held the highest military position in the country and who had remained Catholic even when relatives converted to Protestantism. Catherine also was Catholic, but she and Montmorency followed a policy of limited toleration of Huguenots, much to the despair of the zealously anti-Huguenot and pro-Catholic Guise family.

On March 1, 1562, Francis, the Duke of Guise, attacked some Huguenots while they worshiped in the town of Vassy, killing some and wounding many more. The Massacre of Vassy set off the first in a series of "Wars of Religion" between Huguenots and Catholics in France. Catherine de Médicis, Constable Montmorency, and the Duke of Guise led the Catholic faction. The Huguenots were led by Louis de Bourbon, who was the prince of Conde, and Constable Montmorency's nephew, Admiral Gaspard de Coligny. The first war lasted until 1563, during which time the Duke of Guise was assassinated. The Guises blamed Admiral Coligny, although he probably had nothing to do with the assassination. Additional wars took place in 1567-1568 and 1568-1570, with atrocities committed by both sides. The prince of Conde was killed in 1569, leaving Coligny as the undisputed leader of France's Huguenots.

During 1571, a period of peace between Catholics and Huguenots, Admiral Coligny became the chief adviser to Charles IX, who was by then 21 years old and trying to establish his power separate from his mother. Coligny advised the king to invade the Netherlands, then controlled by Spain. Catherine de Médicis was deeply displeased at this turn of events, as she did not want to give up her power and she opposed going to war with Spain. Nonetheless, she did want to see an end to the religious disputes racking France. To that end, she arranged a marriage between her daughter Marguerite, a Catholic, and Henry of Navarre, a Bourbon and one of the leading Huguenots in France. Hundreds of Huguenot nobles from throughout France came to Paris for the wedding on August 18, 1572. Who was

responsible for what happened next is not entirely clear, but it appears that Catherine de Médicis and the Guise family conspired to murder Admiral Coligny; the Guises still blamed him for the death of the previous Duke of Guise in 1563. Whatever the reasons, on August 22, someone shot and wounded but did not kill Coligny. King Charles IX apparently did not know who was responsible and vowed to Coligny that he would track down the people behind the shooting; Coligny, after all, was his friend and adviser. Two days later, on Saint Bartholomew's Day, the Duke of Guise went to Coligny's room and killed him, and a general massacre of Huguenots in Paris ensued. Over the next 3 days, mobs raging through the streets killed possibly 3,000 Huguenots in Paris. The violence spread throughout France. The exact numbers of Huguenots killed throughout France are unknown; one Huguenot historian put the number at 70,000, but many modern historians believe the number is closer to 30,000.

Preparation

Before you begin the activities, give the students background information about the factions in France. To keep the names straight, you might list on the board the Huguenots (Coligny) and the Catholics (Catherine de Médicis, the Guises). Make enough copies of the excerpts for your students and distribute them.

Activity 1

Divide the students into 4 groups and assign each group a different excerpt. Each group should read its excerpt and answer the questions, then create a brief oral presentation for the class, summarizing its excerpt. In a class discussion, ask the students:

- Why did the massacre occur?
- Why do they think the violence became so gruesome, even by the standards of massacres?
- Why were the religious differences so important? Why couldn't people of different faiths coexist at this time? (They will need to draw on background knowledge about the Reformation for these questions. You might share with them the following quotations: King Philip II of Spain, who ruled from 1556 to 1598, said, "I would prefer to lose all my dominions and a hundred lives if I had them rather than be lord over heretics." Clement VIII, who was pope from 1592 to 1605, called liberty of conscience "the worst thing in the world.")
- How do they think the Huguenots probably reacted?
- Can they tell anything about the writer's religion? Why do they think he wrote this history? (Jacques-Auguste de Thou was a liberal Catholic who did not support persecution; see the afterword.)
- What events in his history could he have witnessed himself? For which events must he have relied on the accounts of others? How does this affect your view of his credibility?

Activity 2

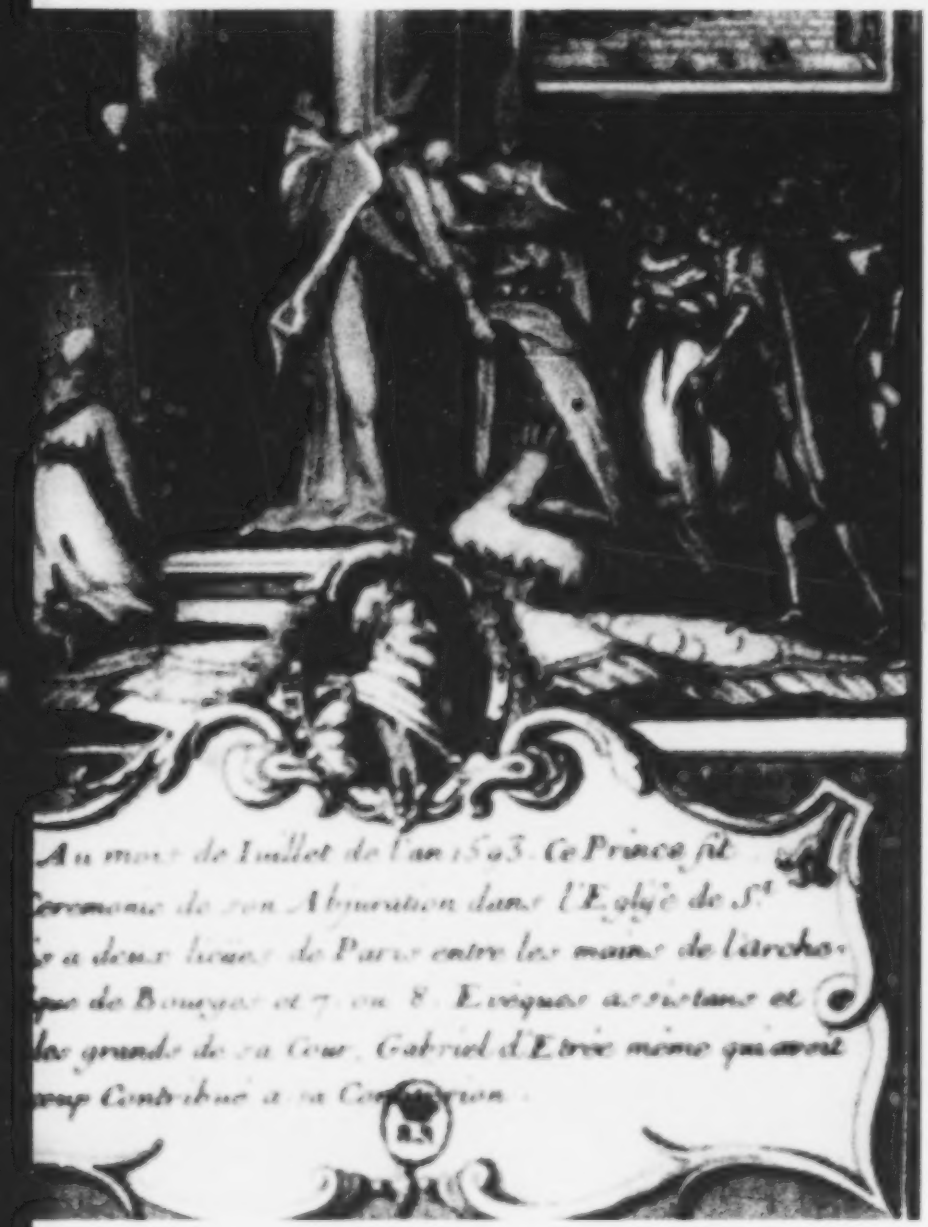
For a written assignment, have the students write a letter to a friend from the viewpoint of the Guises and Catherine de Médicis, Charles IX, Coligny, or a common Catholic or common Protestant explaining the events of the massacre. Alternatively, the students could take the role of a newspaper reporter and write an article about the massacre.

Enrichment/Extension

1. Have the students research the aftermath of the massacre. Did the Protestants flee France? How did they cope with the slaughter of their friends and families? After the massacre, what steps did the monarchy take to resolve the conflict? Were Protestants still allowed to practice their religion?
2. Have students pick other countries in Europe and research how Protestants and Catholics interacted in those countries. Among the countries which they could pick are: England, Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, and some of the German states.

Afterword

Some Huguenots converted to Catholicism in the aftermath of the massacre. The massacre stiffened the resolve of many others to refrain from compromise, and the French Wars of Religion continued. Eventually, the son of Marguerite and Henry of Navarre, who was also called Henry, became King Henry IV in 1589. Raised as a Huguenot, he had to renounce his faith and embrace



Henry of Navarre, a Huguenot, renounced his faith in favor of Catholicism to become King Henry IV of France. He reportedly observed, "Paris is worth a mass." Bibliothèque Nationale de France, Paris.

Catholicism before Catholics fully accepted him as king in 1594. In 1598, he issued the Edict of Nantes, granting religious toleration to the Huguenots. One of his leading advisers was Jacques-Auguste de Thou, who wrote the book from which the excerpts in this lesson are taken and who helped draft the Edict of Nantes.

How to Use this Lesson for History Day Entries

The Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre would make a very dramatic topic for a performance, as would some of the other religious conflicts of the era. Students may find the conflicts between Protestants and Catholics in England a particularly appealing topic, due to the plethora of English-language sources which are available. The series, *English Recusant Literature, 1558-1640*, reprints the writings of Catholic authors, while the widely-available *Foxe's Book of Martyrs* recounts the treatment of Protestants at the hands of Catholics. The microfilm collection *Early English Books* includes the writings of both Catholics and Protestants. These books and pamphlets provide excellent material for papers. Contemporary texts often included graphic illustrations which could be used in exhibits or documentaries along with copies of title pages or key passages in the sources, and students also could construct maps and time lines.

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READINGS

The following excerpts are all taken from Jacques-Auguste de Thou's *The History of the Bloody Massacres of the Protestants in France in the year of our Lord, 1572* (London: 1674), an English translation of a work written by de Thou many years earlier. De Thou was a young man at the time of the Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre, parts of which he witnessed.

Excerpt 1

[Note: This excerpt describes some of the discussion at a meeting held around the time of the wedding of Marguerite, sister of King Charles IX, to Henry of Navarre. Attending the meeting were King Charles IX; his mother Catherine de Médicis; his brother Henry, the Duke of Anjou; and others.]

There are two factions in the Kingdom; one of the Momorancies [Montmorency], to whom the Colignies were formerly added, but now upon the account of Religion, by which they have engaged many (to them), they constitute a new faction. The other is of the Guises: nor will France ever be quiet, or that Majesty that is taken from Kings by the Civil Wars thence arising, ever be restored till the chief of their Heads who disturb the most flourishing Empire, and the publick Peace, be stricken off. They, by the troubles of the Kingdom, have grown to so great Power, that they cannot be taken away at the same time: they are severally to be taken off, and set one against the other, that they may destroy one another. Coligni must be begun with who only survives of his Family, who being taken out of the way, it would much weaken the Momorancies, who lie under so great an odium upon the account of their joyning with Coligni. But this is an unworthy thing, and not to be suffered by you, (said they, directing their discourse to the King), that a man whom only Nobility commends, one that is advanced to honour by the favour of Kings, now grown burdensom to the Nobility, equal to Princes in honour, grievous to your self, should come to that height of madness and boldness, that he should count it a sport to mock at Royal Majesty, and his madness is above all things by you, if you be indeed King, to be restrained, that by his example all may learn to bear their fortunes decently, and use them modestly. Nor only shall the faction of the Momorances be broken by his death, but the power of the Protestants shall be over-turned: of which, when he [Coligny] is the very heart and soul, in him alone the Protestants seem to live, and he being dead, they will fall with him. This is not only useful, but necessary for setling the publick Peace, when as experience doth shew, that as one house cannot keep two Dogs, nor one tree relieve two Parrots, so one and the same Kingdom cannot bear two Religions.

Questions:

1. What reasons were discussed for taking action against the factions?
2. Why was Coligny singled out?

Excerpt 2

[Note: Charles IX reluctantly agreed to his mother's plan, but he was uncomfortable with it, having assured Coligny and other Protestant nobles of their safety. This excerpt discusses the start of the Massacre.]

The Queen [Catherine de Médicis] fearing lest the King, whom she thought she did observe still wavering and staggering at the horridness of the enterprize, should change his mind, comes into his Bed chamber at midnight, whither presently Anjou, Nevers, Biragus, Tavannes, Radesianus [members of the Catholic faction], and after them Guise came by agreement. There they immind the King, hesitating, and after a long discourse had to and fro, upbraided by his Mother, that by his delaying he would let slip a fair occasion offered him by God, of subduing his enemies. By which speech the King finding himself accused of Cowardice, and being of himself of a fierce nature, and accustomed to blood-shed, was inflamed, and gave command to put the thing in execution. Therefore the Queen laying hold of his present heat, lest by delaying it should slack, commands that the sign which was to have been given at break of day should be hastened, and that the Bell of the nearer Church of St. Gierman Auxerrois should be tolled.

The Souldiers had for some time stood ready in their Arms drawn up in the streets, expecting the sign with greedy ears and desires: by whose clattering and unusual noise at so unseasonable a time, the Protestants who lodged by the King's command in the neighbouring lodgings, being awakened, went forth, and repaired toward the Louvre, where the concourse was, and enquiring of those they met what was the meaning of that concourse of so many armed men, and why so many candles were lighted, they, as they were instructed (beforehand) answered, that there was a certain mock-fight preparing, and that many from all parts did flock together to the fight. But when notwithstanding they went on further, they are injuriously repelled by the Guards that stood near the Castle, then railed upon, and reviled; lastly, they were beaten; the first blow being given by a Gascoign, and one of them having received a blow, the rest fell upon them.

Questions:

1. How did Catherine de Médicis and the members of the Catholic faction persuade King Charles IX to continue with the plan?
2. What happened to the Protestants who ventured out when they first heard the bells ringing?

Excerpt 3

[Note: This describes the spread of the massacre within Paris.]

In the mean time Guise, with Aumale and Angolesme [noblemen of the Catholic faction], return into the City, where the King's Guards did commit outrages upon the lives and fortunes of the Protestant Nobles and Gentlemen, even of those that were their familiars [i.e., family members], and well known to them. This work being assigned to them in particular, whiles the people incited by the Sheriffs, wardsmen and tything-men that ran about, did furiously rage with all manner of licentiousness and excess against their fellow-Citizens, and a sad and horrid face of things did every where appear. For the streets and ways did resound with the noise of those that flocked to the slaughter and plunder, and the complaints and doleful out-cries of dying men, and those that were nigh to danger were every where heard. The carkasses of the slain were thrown down from the windows, the Courts & chambers of houses were full of dead men, their dead bodies rolled in dirt were dragged through the streets, bloud did flow in such abundance through the chanels of the streets, that full streams of bloud did run down into the River: the number of the slain men, women, even those that were great with child, and children also, was innumerable.

Annas Terrerius Chapius, being eighty years old, and an Advocate of great name in the Senate, was slain. Also Jo. Lomerius Secretary to the King, having compounded [i.e., paid] for his safety, was thrown into Gaol by Johannes Parisiensis Judge of Criminals, and having sold his Estate at Versailles to his adversary, with whom he had a Suit depending about it, at a low rate, and leaving his office upon the account of another, was afterwards slain by the command of those with whom he had those dealings. . . .

This fury did extend itself to those that never professed the Protestant Doctrine. For Gulielmus Bertrandus, Villemorius Master of Requests, (son of Jo. Bertrand Vice-Chancellor, and afterwards Cardinal) a good man, and liberal, and one that was injurious to none, was spoiled of his mony, and then slain by cut-throats.

Questions:

1. How did the King's Guards and the mobs behave?
2. What motivated the mobs to act as they did? What indications are there that the motivation was not always religious?

Excerpt 4

[Note: This excerpt describes the spread of the massacre outside of Paris.]

But in Dauphine and Provence things were carried after far another manner. For Claudius Sabaudus Count of Tende, who was very nearly allied to the Momorancies, when Letters were brought him about the same business [i.e., executing the Huguenots]. . . ingenuously answered that he did not think that that was the King's pleasure, but that some that were evilly affected to the publick Peace, did falsly pretend his name, when as not many days since he had received quite other commands: that therefore he would rather obey the former, as more worthy of the King's Faith and Clemency. But he not long after being at Avignon, died of a sudden disease, to the great grief of the people of Provence, not without suspition given him by the Emissaries of the seditious. . . .

At the same time, but with greater slaughter, were things carried at Rouen, where Tanaquilius Venato Garrugius, the Governor of the chief Nobility of Provence, a man of a merciful disposition, did what he could to hinder it. But at last, not being able any longer to withstand the violence of the seditious, (and especially of those who, the year before, were, by the decree of the Judges, delegated from Paris, proscribed, who hoped that, by this course, they should both revenge the injury offered them, and also obliterate the memory of the Decree), many were thrown into prison, and afterwards 15 Kal. of VIIIbr [September 17], being called out one by one by the voice of the Cryer, were cruelly slain by those Emissaries, Maronimus a most wicked wretch leading them on. Upon this they set upon private houses, and that day and the day following they fell upon men & women, without distinction, and 500 of both sexes and all ages were slain, and their bodies being stripped, were cast into the ditches ad Portam Caletenfem, and their garments all bloudy as they were, were distributed among the poor, they seeking even by these murders to ingratiate themselves with the people. This the Senate was in shew offended at, and began to proceed against the Authors of this fact: but through connivance it came to nothing, the murderers and cut-throats for a time slipping out of the City.

This example raged through other Cities, and from Cities to Towns and Villages; and it is reported by many, that more than thirty thousand were slain in those tumults throughout the Kingdom, by several ways; though I believe the number was somewhat less.

Questions:

1. How did the mobs treat the Huguenots elsewhere in France?
2. Did anyone try to stop the violence? How? Why?

AFRICAN AMERICAN SOLDIERS and the REVOLUTIONARY WAR: Sons of Liberty?

"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. These words from the Declaration of Independence have inspired countless millions of people. At the time Thomas Jefferson wrote them in 1776, about 500,000 African Americans, about one-fifth of the entire population of the American states, were enslaved.

The American Revolution presented a grave challenge to slavery. In 1775, John Murray, the Earl of Dunmore, who was the last royal governor of Virginia, issued what came to be called "Dunmore's Proclamation." In it, he offered freedom to healthy enslaved adult males willing to run away from their patriot masters to join an army Dunmore was organizing. Some 800 men accepted the offer, and 300 of them formed the Ethiopian Regiment, going into battle proudly wearing sashes bearing the words, "Liberty to Slaves." The turmoil of war provided additional opportunities for slaves. Many seized their freedom by running away. Thousands flocked to the British standard, lured by hopes of gaining their freedom. Some British commanders offered freedom to any rebel-owned slaves who reached their lines, not just those willing and able to fight for the British. At the end of the war, some 3,000 to 4,000 African Americans who had sided with the British sailed to Canada, Britain, or the British colonies in the West Indies. Some who went to the West Indies ended up being re-enslaved on sugar plantations there, while those who went to Canada found an inhospitable welcome and migrated again, establishing the colony of Sierra Leone in Africa.

Some African Americans, both free and slave, joined the American army right at the beginning of the conflict. However, George Washington put an end to new enlistments by African Americans after he took command of the Continental Army in the summer of 1775. Late in 1775, free blacks were again allowed to enlist. Over the next several years, as recruiting for the army became difficult and states resorted to drafts to fill their army quotas, many slaves also began appearing in the ranks of the Continental Army and the state militias, enlisting on their own or as substitutes for their owners in exchange for promises of freedom, promises which were not always kept. African Americans mostly served in integrated units, but there were a few segregated units, most notably the First Rhode Island Regiment. By the end of the war, at least 5,000 African Americans, many of them slaves, had served in the Continental Army and hundreds more in the Continental Navy.

The Revolution also affected the attitudes of white Americans. Many became uncomfortable with the notion of enslaving others when they themselves were complaining that the British were trying to enslave them. African Americans quickly took advantage. Borrowing the rhetoric used by the white patriots, they petitioned state legislatures and pursued court cases in an effort to end slavery. In 1780, in a series of cases involving an African American named Quock Walker, the Massachusetts Supreme Court ended slavery in the state, a decision widely supported by public opinion. In the following years, other northern states adopted gradual emancipation, not freeing people already enslaved but providing for the institution's eventual demise. Many individual slave owners in both the northern and southern states manumitted (freed) their slaves voluntarily.

One of the biggest slave owners

Bostonians, including African Americans, rioted against the Stamp Act in 1765, one of the key events in the coming of the American Revolution. Etching by Daniel Berger based on drawings by Daniel Chodowiecki, 1784. Library of Congress.

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in Virginia, Robert Carter of Nomini Hall, manumitted all 485 of his slaves a few years after the Revolution.

In all, an estimated 100,000 African Americans –about 20% of the African American population–became free during the American Revolution. The majority of African Americans, however, remained enslaved. The American Revolution, then, presented an enormous opportunity for African Americans, but their actual experiences during the war were quite mixed.

Objectives

- To analyze a primary source to discover both facts and underlying meanings.
- To describe how the American Revolution affected African Americans.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- The student understands the principles articulated in the Declaration of Independence. Therefore, the student is able to demonstrate the fundamental contradictions between the ideals expressed in the Declaration of Independence and the realities of chattel slavery (United States History Standards, Era 3: Revolution and the New Nation, 1754-1820s, Standard 1B).
- The student understands the factors affecting the course of the war and contributing to the American victory. Compare and explain the different roles and perspectives in the war of men and women, including white settlers, free and enslaved African Americans, and Native Americans (United States History Standards, Era 3: Revolution and the New Nation, 1754-1820s, Standard 1C).

Background

During the Revolutionary War, Congress made various promises to officers and sometimes to enlisted men in the Continental Army or Navy about postwar disability pensions or other payments. Until 1818, however, most of the pension laws provided for payments only to those disabled while in the Continental service. In 1818, Congress granted pensions to Continental veterans who were in financial need, regardless of disability, as long as they had served at least 9 months. Not until 1832 did Congress extend pensions to all surviving Revolutionary War veterans who could prove at least 6 months of service in the Continental Army or Navy, state militias, or volunteer units, regardless of disability or financial need. Those who had served at least 2 years were to receive full pay for life, while those serving 6 months to 2 years were to receive prorated amounts.

The National Archives has on file some 80,000 applications for pensions or land grants by Revolutionary War veterans. To receive a pension, applicants had to prove their service, which they did by swearing to their service in a court of record; their declarations provide details about when and where they enlisted, with whom they served, and other such details. Successful applicants often provided supporting documents, such as discharge papers or depositions from other veterans. It is not known exactly how many African Americans applied for pensions, because they were not always identified as such in the records. However, we do know of a few dozen. One of them was by a man named Jehu Grant.

Activity 1

Have the students read about or explain to them the background of African American participation in the American Revolution and tell them about the requirements for Revolutionary War pensions. You should also tell the students that at the time Grant applied for his pension and was rejected, the nation was already dividing over the issue of slavery. Opponents of slavery were organizing societies to work to end slavery, and William Lloyd Garrison began publishing his abolitionist newspaper, *The Liberator*, in 1831. By this time, runaway slaves were becoming a serious concern for Southern planters.

Give each student a copy of the two documents. Have different students read the first document aloud to the class as a whole. Answer any questions they may have about Jehu Grant's declaration.

On the board, have students create a time line of Jehu Grant's life, listing all of the facts which they can find in his declaration. Using the time line and Grant's declaration as a basis for discussion, ask the students if they think Grant has met the requirements for a pension.

Now have the students read document 2. Add additional facts about Grant's life to the time line. Discuss with the students the following questions:

1. What happened to Grant's original application? Why was he turned down?
2. On what basis did Grant appeal the decision?

3. What do you learn about Grant's attitudes from this letter? How did the Revolution affect his life? Did the Revolution change him? Why or why not?
4. Grant's appeal was rejected. Ask the students to speculate about why that happened.

Activity 2

For a writing assignment, you could have students pretend to be one of Grant's children or a friend of Grant's in 1836 and write a letter to their congressman protesting the decision of the pension commission. Alternatively, you could have them assume the role of a newspaper editorial writer and write an editorial critical (if working for an abolitionist newspaper) or supportive (if working for a Southern newspaper) of the decision.

Enrichment and Extension

Selected narratives of Revolutionary War pension records are available in a book edited by John C. Dann, *The Revolution Remembered: Eyewitness Accounts of the War for Independence* (Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1980). The book is available in many public libraries as well as most university libraries. You also may borrow microfilm of the pension records through the National Archives' Microfilm Rental Program; see the National Archives' web site <http://www.nara.gov/publications/microfilm/micrent.html> for details. Make copies of some of the narratives, choosing several from each state or region of the country. Give each student one narrative and ask him or her to write an obituary for that person, focusing on how that person participated in and was affected by the American Revolution. Alternatively, divide the students into groups and give each group several narratives from a particular state or region. Ask each group to create a poster or do an oral report summarizing how the American Revolution affected people in that area. You may want to have the students do some additional research about the Revolution in that state or region.

How to Use this Lesson for History Day Entries

The effect of the American Revolution on groups such as enslaved African Americans or on individuals is an excellent topic for a History Day entry. The narratives provide excellent material for scripts for performances or for voiceovers for documentaries. There are numerous published memoirs and diaries which provide more extensive information about the effects of the Revolution on individuals which students writing papers or creating exhibits could use. While photography did not exist at the time of the Revolution, broadsides, newspapers, paintings, maps, and engravings provide visual images. Students also could visit many historic sites associated with the Revolution, such as battlefields or homes. Many of these sites offer living history performances, which students could photograph or videotape. They also frequently have web sites which provide access for students who cannot visit in person.

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VOL. 1.] WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON AND ISAAC KNAPP, PUBLISHERS. [NO. 33.
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.] OUR COUNTRY IS THE WORLD—OUR COUNTRYMEN ARE MANKIND.

William Lloyd Garrison published the abolitionist newspaper, *The Liberator*. Library of Congress.

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Document 1
Declaration of Jehu Grant, September 11, 1832

In order to obtain the benefit of the Act of Congress passed June 7th 1832

In Chancery before the Vice Chancellor of the 4th Circuit of the State of N. York} Present his Hon. Estah Corven Vice Chancellor. On this 11th day of September 1832, personally appeared in open Court before the said Chancellor, Jehu Grant, of Milton in the County of Saratoga and State of New York, aged, according to the best information he possesses about seventy-seven years, Who being first duly sworn according to Law, doth on his oath, make the following decleration, in order to obtain the benefit of the Act of Congress, passed June 7th 1832__That he entered the Service of the United States, under the following named officers and served as fixed in statue, That he was a slave to Elihu Champlen, Who resided at Narragansett, Rhode-Island, at the time he left him__his said Master was Called a Tory, and in a secret manner furnished the Enemy, Whose shipping lay near by, with sheep, cattle, chees & c, and received goods from them, And this applicant being afraid his said Master, would send him to the British ships, ran away some time in August 1777, as near as he can recollect, being the same summer that Danbury was burnt__that he went right to Danbury after he left his said Master and enlisted to Captain Giles Gales for eighteen month that according to the best of his memory General Huntington and General Meigs Brigades or a part of them were at that place, that he this Applicant was put to teaming with a team of Horses, and Waggon, drawing provision and various other loading for the Army, for then on four Months untill winter set in__then was taken as a servant to John Scidmore Waggon Master General (as he was called) and served with him as his Waiter untill spring, When the said troops went to the Hyghlands or near that place on the Hudson River, a little above the British lines__that this Applicant had Charge of the Teams as Waggoner and Carryed the said General Scidmores Bagage and Continued with him (and the said troops) as his Waggoner near the said lines untill some time in June, When his said Master either Sent or Came and this applicant was given up to his Master again, and he returned, after having served nine or ten month

Interrogatories by the Chansellor

1st and 2nd That he has been informed that he was born in Charlestown State of Rhode Island in what year he does not know & knows of no record of his age

3rd That he lived at a place called Narragansett in the state of Rhode Island When he ran away from his Master and listed as aforesaid, That his said Master sold him to one Grant and soon after the revolution With the aid of Joshua Swan he purchased his time of the said Grant, And that he moved with the said Joshua Swan into Milton the Town Where he now resides, and labored for him untill his time was paid for, that he has continued to live in Saratoga County ever since, also for the last 15 or 20 years in the neighborhood Where he now resides.

4 & 5 [illegible] in his declaration as far as he can understand them_ 6 he did not receive any discharge

7th These Thomas Powel, Daniel Couch, Adam Swan, Isaac Frink & Salmon Child He hereby relinquishes every Claim Whatever to pension or annuity except the present and declares that his name is not on the pension Roll of the agency of any state

Sworn to and subscribed the day and year aforesaid
Jehu Grant X his mark
Sworn the 11th September 1832, before me, in open Court
E. Corven

Source: "Grant, Jehu" folder, R4197, Pension and Bounty Land Application Files based upon service prior to the Civil War, Records of the Veterans Administration, 1773-1985, Record Group 15; National Archives Building, Washington, DC (Revolutionary War Pension and Bounty Land Warrant Application Files, National Archives Microfilm Publication, M804, Roll 1108).

Document 2

Letter of Jehu Grant to J. L. Edward, Commissioner of Pensions, December 1, 1836

Hon. J. L. Edward Commiss. of Pensions

Your servant begs leave to state that he forwarded to the War Department a decleration founded on the pension Act of June 1832 praying to be allowed a pension (If his memory serves him) for ten Months service in the American Army of the revolutionary war__that he enlisted as a soldier but was put to the service of a teamster in the summer & a waiter in the winter. In April 1834 I received a writing from your Hon, informing me that my "Services While a fugative from my Masters Service Was not imbraced in said Act." And that my "papers were placed on file." In my said decleration I just mentioned the Cause of leaving my Master as may be seen by a referance thereunto, And I now pray that I may be permitted to express my feelings more fully on that part of my said decleration. I was then grown to Manhood in the full Vigour and Strength of life__heard much about the Cruel and arbitary things done by the British, Their ships lay within a few miles of my Masters house which stood near the shore and I was confident that my Master traded with them, and I suffered much from fear that I should be sent aboard a ship of war, this I disliked But when I saw liberty poles & the people all engaged for the support of freedom, I could not but like & be pleased with such thing. (God forgive me if I sinned in so feeling) And living on the borders of Rhode Is. where whole companies of coloured people enlisted, it added to my fears and dread of being sold to the British These considerations induced me to enlist into the American Army where I served faithfull about 10 months. When my Master found and took me home, had I been taught to read or understand the precepts of the Gospel, "Servants obey your Masters" I might have done otherwise notwithstanding the songs of liberty that saluted my ear, thrilled through my heart. But feeling conscious that I have since compensated my Master for the Injury he sustained by my enlisting and that God has forgiven me for so doing and that I served my country faithfully and that they having enjoyed the benefits of my Service to an equal degree for the length time I served with those generally who are receiving the liberalities of the Government I cannot but feel it becoming me to pray Your Hon, to review my decleration on file and the papers herewith annexed

A few years after the war Joshua Swan Esqr of Stonington purchased me of my Master and agreed that after I had served him a length of time named faithfully I should be free, I served to his satisfaction & so obtained my freedom. He moved into the Town of Milton where I now reside about 48 years ago__After my time expired with Esqr Swan I Married a wife We have raised six children 5 are still living I must be upwards of 80 years of age and have been blind for many years and Notwithstanding the aid I receive from the honest Industry of my children We are still very needy and in part are supported from the benevolence of our friends, With these statements and the Testimony of my character herewith presented I humbly rest my claim upon the Well known liberality of Government.

Most respectfully your humble servant
Jehu Grant X his mark
Milton Saratoga County
State of N. York
Decem 1st 1836

The long sickness and death of one of the friends on whom the said Jehu relyed and the abence of another for nearly two years has prevented other proceedings to the present time.

Salmon Child
Agent of Jehu Grant
Jehu Grant X his mark

Source: "Grant, Jehu" folder, R4197, Pension and Bounty Land Application Files based upon service prior to the Civil War, Records of the Veterans Administration, 1773-1985, Record Group 15; National Archives Building, Washington, DC (Revolutionary War Pension and Bounty Land Warrant Application Files, National Archives Microfilm Publication, M804, Roll 1108).

THE "REVOLUTION" OF 1800

by John Riley, Director of Education and Scholarship, White House Historical Association

In 2000, Republican George W. Bush edged out Democrat Al Gore in one of the closest presidential races in the history of the Electoral College. Some 200 years earlier, in the presidential election of 1800, Democratic-Republican Thomas Jefferson easily beat Federalist John Adams in a bitter, highly partisan campaign. However, Jefferson did not win the election outright. In fact, due to a fluke, the Electoral College actually produced a tie between Jefferson and Aaron Burr, his own vice-presidential candidate. The constitution gave responsibility for settling the election to the United States House of Representatives. The House found it difficult to decide. Its first vote ended in a tie, as did its next 35 votes. On the 37th ballot, the House finally chose Thomas Jefferson as president.

The more significant event was not that the Electoral College produced a tie or that the House of Representatives settled the election. It was that the loser, President John Adams, did not call out the army or arrest the winner but instead peacefully gave up his office and turned power over to an opponent from a different political party. Most educated Americans knew that history was littered with examples of republics which had collapsed when one group refused to give up power to another. Indeed, in a letter written years later, Jefferson defined this first transfer of political power from one party to another as the "revolution" of 1800. In his inaugural address, Jefferson

The east front of the President's House in 1807, during Jefferson's presidency. Watercolor by Benjamin Henry Latrobe. Library of Congress.

faced the task of healing some of the divisions which separated Federalists and Democratic-Republicans while outlining his own vision for the country. The address has been called one of the most important in U. S. history, and some of the phrases still ring through the ages.

Objectives

- To study the significance of the election of 1800, the first transfer of political party power in American history.
- To examine one of the most important inaugural addresses in presidential history and how it reflected turbulent times and a chief executive's vision for our nation.
- To reflect on parallels between presidential elections in 1800 and in modern times.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- Identify issues and problems in the past; marshal evidence of antecedent circumstances and contemporary factors contributing to problems and alternative courses of action (Historical Thinking Standards, Historical Issues: Analysis and Decision-Making, Standard 5A and B).
- The institutions and practices of government created during the Revolution and how they were revised between 1787 and 1815 to create the foundation of the American political system based on the U. S. Constitution and the Bill of Rights. (United States History Standards, Era 3: Revolution and the New Nation, 1754-1820s, Standard 3).

Background

Upon the ratification of the Constitution in 1788, there seemed little doubt that George Washington–commander in chief of the Continental Army, presiding officer at the Constitutional Convention, and America's first true hero–would be chosen as the first president. The Electoral College voted unanimously for him, and Washington was inaugurated as president in New York in April 1789. Washington attempted to remain above party politics and frequently warned that political factions could only serve to fracture national unity. While there were no formal, organized political parties during his administration, two competing political philosophies did arise which provided the basis for the parties which emerged later.

The nascent political parties coalesced around two members of Washington's cabinet: Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton and Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson. Hamilton believed that a strong federal government was America's best hope, a view with which Washington was sympathetic. Having a weak government, they feared, would encourage internal conflicts and foreign invasion. They considered elites the people best suited to govern and hold office, regarding ordinary men as too easily led astray. To build up the power of the central government and to create a self-sufficient economy which would allow the U.S. to remain independent, Hamilton favored having an active and strong federal government which encouraged manufacturing and domestic trade. Hamilton and those who shared his views came to be called Federalists.

Thomas Jefferson and others disagreed. The greatest threat to America's future, they believed, came from those who wanted to create a strong central government, such as the one against which they had fought in the American Revolution. The best national government was a small one; political power, and therefore political destiny, should reside in the separate states. Although Jefferson was himself an elite, he regarded his fellow elites with suspicion, believing they were too likely to pursue their own self-interest rather than the national interest. Nor did he support Hamilton's plan to create a self-sufficient economy. Those who worked in manufacturing as well as those who lived in cities were far too dependent on others and easily swayed as voters. Instead, he believed the future of the U.S. was best guaranteed by remaining a nation of small, independent farmers who did not rely on others for their livelihoods. Jefferson and his supporters took the name of Democratic-Republicans or Republicans for short.

Both the Federalists (*Gazette of the United States*) and Republicans (*National Gazette*) controlled their own newspapers and through anonymous articles published in them, opponents Alexander Hamilton and Jefferson argued their causes. When Washington decided to retire in 1796 after his second term, Hamilton, who had been born in the West Indies and who was in any case unpopular with many people, could not run for president against Jefferson. That task

instead fell to Washington's vice president, John Adams. Because the Constitution did not anticipate political parties it was possible for the president and vice president to hold different political viewpoints and in 1796 that is exactly what happened. Adams received the most electoral votes and became president; Jefferson came in second and therefore became vice president. This led to incredible tensions over key policy issues, especially the Alien and Sedition Acts, championed by Federalists, although not by Adams personally. The 1800 election again pitted the Federalist Adams against the Republican Jefferson. Jefferson easily defeated the sitting president, although, as noted above, he ended up tied with his own vice presidential candidate, Aaron Burr. Even as the House of Representatives settled the election and chose Jefferson as president, Adams appointed a number of Federalist judges, including Chief Justice John Marshall, to ensure Federalist control of the judiciary. It was in the aftermath of these controversies, that Jefferson, on March 4, 1801, gave his inaugural address in the new capital city of Washington.

Activity 1

Make copies of Jefferson's first inaugural address and distribute it. Have students read background material on the election of 1800 in their textbooks and then read the address, either silently or aloud. Discuss the following:

1. Jefferson is considered one of America's greatest writers. His inaugural address was filled with beautifully constructed thoughts, well expressed. Several phrases are still quoted today: "entangling alliances"; "every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle"; and "we are all Republicans, we are all Federalists." Consider the historical context of these phrases and discuss the meanings behind them.
2. Consider Jefferson's agenda. Find phrases and sections in which he discussed his views of the American republic and highlight them. For example, where did he discuss his tax policy, states rights, foreign policy, and debt reduction? Create a list of policy topics accompanied by Jefferson's language, then use 21st-century "straight talk" to interpret the president's text. Go further and compare these policies to those of the Federalists.
3. Jefferson acknowledged the audience, Congress, in his inaugural speech. He also referred to George Washington ("our first and greatest revolutionary character"). Did he mention his predecessor, John Adams? Did he refer to Adams's policies? What do you make of this? How do modern presidents acknowledge their political opponents and their viewpoints?

Activity 2

Have students pretend that they were on the losing end of the 1800 elections. They could assume the roles of John Adams, a Federalist Congressman ousted by a Republican, or a Federalist Senator now in the minority. Have students compose a written response to Jefferson's inaugural address from the Federalist standpoint. You might even have several students present their responses orally to the class. Alternatively, you could have the students write a critique of Jefferson's inaugural address for publication in the Federalist newspaper.

Activity 3

Almost 20 years after the election of 1800, Jefferson evaluated the events of that first political party transition, and described it as a "revolution." In 1819, he wrote, "[The election] was as real a revolution in the principles of our government as that of [17]76 was in its form; not effected indeed by the sword, as that, but by the rational and peaceable instrument of reform, the suffrage of the people. The nation declared its will by dismissing functionaries of one principle, and electing those of another, in the two branches, executive and legislative, submitted to their election." The election put Republicans in control of the White House and Congress. Jefferson obviously considered the "revolution" a great success. Indeed from the time of Jefferson's election until his death in 1826, a Republican occupied the White House.

But was Jefferson's presidency successful? Did it fulfill the goals of his inaugural address? Have your students research Jefferson's two terms using their textbooks and other sources. Then have them write an evaluation of his presidency, either as a modern student or as a Federalist or Republican in 1808. Alternatively, you could have the students assume the characters of Federalists and Republicans debating each other at the end of Jefferson's second term, evaluating the success and wisdom of such policies or acts as the Louisiana Purchase, the war against the Barbary Pirates, and the Embargo Act.

Enrichment and Extension

Have your students select and research another presidential transition during times of dramatic change, such as in 1861 when Abraham Lincoln became president on the eve of the Civil War or 1933 when Franklin Roosevelt assumed the presidency in the midst of the Great Depression. What were the causes of the tensions or fears? Was the nation in real peril? How did the incoming president attempt to calm the nation in his inaugural address? Was he successful? For several examples, visit the web site of the White House Historical Association at <www.whitehousehistory.org>. Go to the Learning Center section. Click on Students Grades 7-12 and go to Lesson One, "Presidential Transitions: The Torch is Passed." For inaugural addresses from Washington to Bush, go to the Avalon Project at Yale Law School <http://www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/presiden/inaug/inaug.htm>. For documents and images related to all inaugurations, go to the web site for the Library of Congress's exhibit, "I Do Solemnly Swear: Presidential Inaugurations" <http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/pihtml/pihome.html>.

How to Use this Lesson for History Day Entries

When describing the election of 1800 as a second American "revolution," students will need to provide some context of the first revolution. Historians consider the first American Revolution to extend beyond the period between Bunker Hill and the peace treaty with Britain. The forging of the U.S. Constitution and the first government to serve under that charter in 1789 are considered to be culminations of a movement that began with the resistance to the Stamp Act in 1765. Jefferson saw the election of

Thomas Jefferson in 1805. Portrait by Rembrandt Peale. Independence National Historic Park.

Republicans to be a call from the American people to return to the spirit of 1776, to the fight for individual rights, and to the struggle to recover "virtue" in government. The third president thought that the Federalists had moved closer to monarchical ways of thinking and acting, exactly opposite of the intentions of the rebels. In fact, one prominent biographer claims this was not a "revolution" but a "reformation" in that Jefferson and the Republicans were reaching back in time to revive original ideals.

This would be a good topic for a paper or a performance with the student(s) portraying Jefferson and/or an opponent and using excerpts from the inaugural address and the letter to Spencer Roane to prepare the script. For these and more examples of Jefferson's political writings, go to the Library of Congress's online exhibit at <http://lcweb.loc.gov/exhibits/jefferson> and also to the home page for the Jefferson Papers at the American Memory Project <http://memory.loc.gov/jefferson>. Many university libraries will have printed versions of the papers of Thomas Jefferson, Alexander Hamilton, and other important politicians of the day. Students creating exhibits or documentaries could use images of Monticello, Jefferson's home in Virginia, as well as of early Washington. Portraits of leading political figures abound for this period and may be combined with images of original sources and other graphics.

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Jefferson's First Inaugural Address
March 4, 1801

Friends and Fellow Citizens: Called upon to undertake the duties of the first executive office of our country, I avail myself of the presence of that portion of my fellow citizens which is here assembled to express my grateful thanks for the favor with which they have been pleased to look toward me, to declare a sincere consciousness that the task is above my talents, and that I approach it with those anxious and awful presentiments which the greatness of the charge and the weakness of my powers so justly inspire. . . .

During the contest of opinion through which we have passed the animation of discussions and of exertions has sometimes worn an aspect which might impose on strangers unused to think freely and to speak and to write what they think; but this being now decided by the voice of the nation, announced according to the rules of the Constitution, all will, of course, arrange themselves under the will of the law, and unite in common efforts for the common good. All, too, will bear in mind this sacred principle, that though the will of the majority is in all cases to prevail, that will to be rightful must be reasonable; that the minority possesses their equal rights, which equal law must protect, and to violate would be oppression. Let us, then, fellow citizens, unite with one heart and one mind. Let us restore to social intercourse that harmony and affection without which liberty and even life itself are but dreary things. And let us reflect that, having banished from our land that religious intolerance under which mankind so long bled and suffered, we have yet gained little if we countenance a political intolerance as despotic, as wicked, and capable of as bitter and bloody persecutions. During the throes and convulsions of the ancient world, during the agonizing spasms of the infuriated man, seeking through blood and slaughter his long-lost liberty, it was not wonderful that the agitation of the billows should reach even this distant and peaceful shore; that this should be more felt and feared by some and less by others, and should divide opinions as to measures of safety. But every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle. We have called by different names brethren of the same principle. We are all Republicans, we are all Federalists. If there be any among us who would wish to dissolve this Union or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it. I know, indeed, that some honest men fear that a republican government cannot be strong, that this government is not strong enough; but would the honest patriot, in the full tide of successful experiment, abandon a government which has so far kept us free and firm on the theoretic and visionary fear that this government, the world's best hope, may by possibility want energy to preserve itself? I trust not. I believe this, on the contrary, the strongest government on earth. I believe it the only one where every man, at the call of the law, would fly to the standard of the law, and would meet invasions of the public order as his own personal concern. Sometimes it is said that man cannot be trusted with the government of himself. Can he, then, be trusted with the government of others? Or have we found angels in the forms of kings to govern him? Let history answer this question.

Let us, then, with courage and confidence pursue our own federal and republican principles, our attachment to union and representative government. Kindly separated by nature and a wide ocean from the exterminating havoc of one quarter of the globe; too high-minded to endure the degradations of the others; possessing a chosen country, with room enough for our descendants to the thousandth and thousandth generation; entertaining a due sense of our equal right to the use of our own faculties, to the acquisitions of our own industry, to honor and confidence from our fellow

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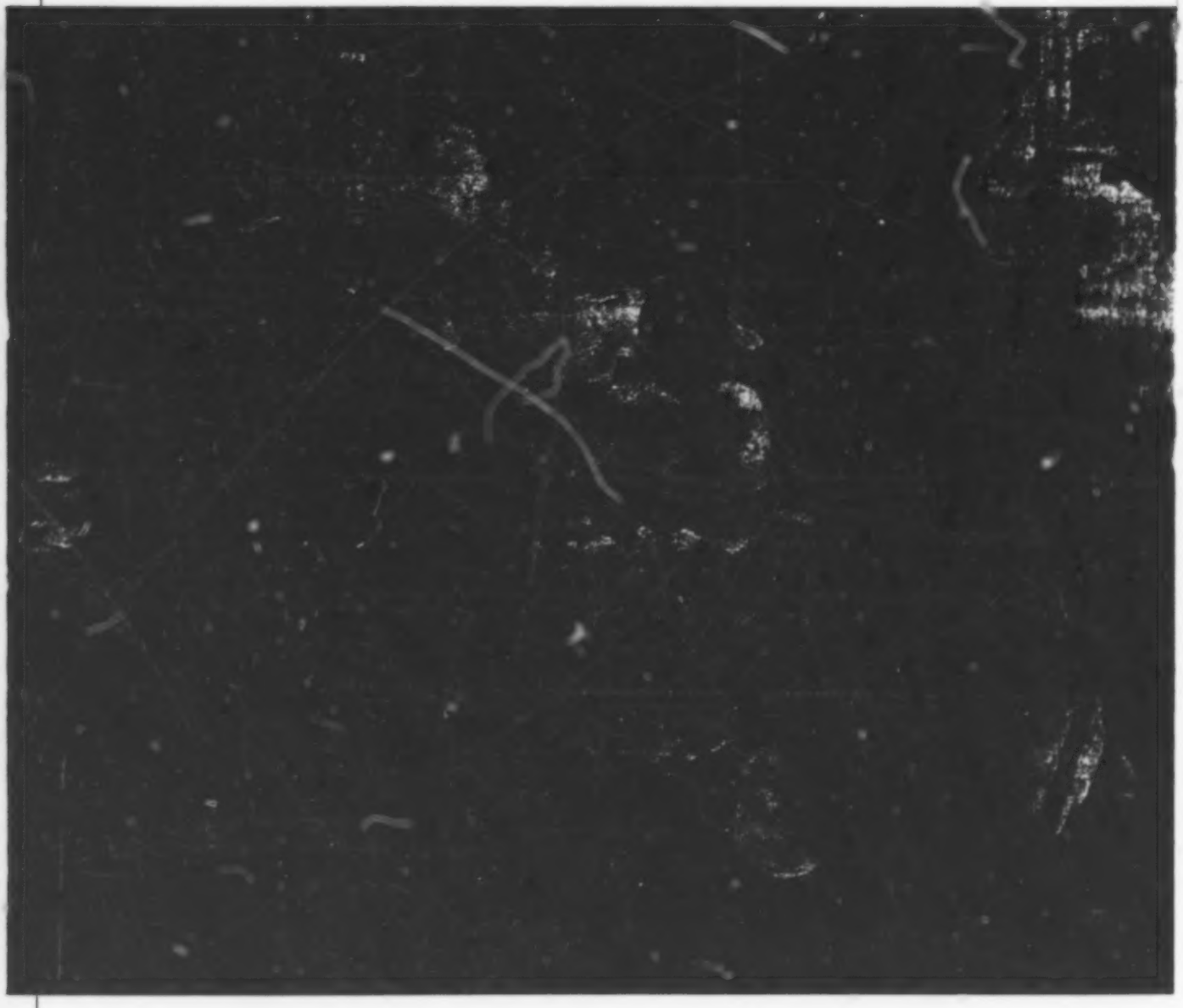
citizens, resulting not from birth, but from our actions and their sense of them; enlightened by a benign religion, professed, indeed, and practiced in various forms, yet all of them inculcating honesty, truth, temperance, gratitude, and the love of man; acknowledging and adoring an overruling Providence, which by all its dispensations proves that it delights in the happiness of man here and his greater happiness hereafter–with all these blessings, what more is necessary to make us a happy and a prosperous people? Still one thing more, fellow citizens–a wise and frugal government, which shall restrain men from injuring one another, shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits of industry and improvement, and shall not take from the mouth of labor the bread it has earned. This is the sum of good government, and this is necessary to close the circle of our felicities.

About to enter, fellow citizens, on the exercise of duties which comprehend everything dear and valuable to you, it is proper you should understand what I deem the essential principles of our government, and consequently those which ought to shape its administration. I will compress them within the narrowest compass they will bear, stating the general principle, but not all its limitations. Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political; peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none; the support of the state governments in all their rights, as the most competent administrations for our domestic concerns and the surest bulwarks against antirepublican tendencies; the preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigor, as the sheet anchor of our peace at home and safety abroad; a jealous care of the right of election by the people–a mild and safe corrective of abuses which are lopped by the sword of revolution where peaceable remedies are unprovided; absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of despotism; a well-disciplined militia, our best reliance in peace and for the moments of war, till regulars may relieve them; the supremacy of the civil over the military authority; economy in the public expense, that labor may be lightly burdened; the honest payment of our debts and sacred preservation of the public faith; encouragement of agriculture, and of commerce as its handmaid; the diffusion of information and arraignment of all abuses at the bar of the public reason; freedom of religion; freedom of the press, and freedom of person under the protection of the habeas corpus, and trial by juries impartially selected. These principles form the bright constellation which has gone before us and guided our steps through an age of revolution and reformation. . . .

Relying, then, on the patronage of your goodwill, I advance with obedience to the work, ready to retire from it whenever you become sensible how much better choice it is in your power to make. And may that Infinite Power which rules the destinies of the universe lead our councils to what is best, and give them a favorable issue for your peace and prosperity.

Note: A complete copy of Jefferson's inaugural address is available through the online version of this curriculum book on NHD's web site <http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org>.



REFORMERS AND CHILD LABOR in the Early 20th Century

by Lynda DeLoach, Archivist, The George Meany Memorial Archives

Mrs. Mauro and family working on feathers for $2.25 per week, 1911. Lewis Hine. National Archives and Records Administration.

One aspect of labor history with which students immediately empathize is child labor. Where, when, how and why children worked–combined with the individual and organizational efforts to reform child labor conditions–form a window of inquiry through which students can view real world events and choices, and determine the impact of those choices in history.

Objectives

- To analyze fictional stories for historical content.
- To identify the arguments for and against child labor.
- To describe the efforts of reformers to end or limit child labor in the United States.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- How Progressives and others addressed problems of industrial capitalism, urbanization, and political corruption (United States History Standards, Era 7: The Emergence of Modern America, 1890-1930: Standard 1).
- Reconstruct the literal meaning of a historical passage; read historical narratives imaginatively (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Comprehension, Standard 2A and C).
- Identify issues and problems in the past; marshal evidence of antecedent circumstances and contemporary factors contributing to problems and alternative courses of action (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Issues-Analysis and Decision-Making, Standard 5A and B).

Background

In the early 1800s the employment of children, even of 8-year-olds in cotton mills, was accepted as a matter of course. It was regarded as a practice of public benefit. Later in the century, however, some people began to see the employment of children as an evil. During the Progressive era, journalists and social workers documented the conditions in which children worked and the effects which work had on their health and futures. Reformers began to lobby for legislation restricting child labor.

The reduction of child labor was the result of several forces: public opinion, finding expression in stricter legislation; unionization, as in the case of the clothing industry; technological changes in industry, which have been an important factor in the textile mills; and, since the Depression, the general scarcity of jobs and availability of older workers at low wages. Considering the stubborn resistance with which every step of federal and state legislation was met, Homer Folks, vice chairman of the National Child Labor Committee, asserted in 1935: "It has long been recognized that effective child labor regulation can be secured only through federal legislation applying equally to all parts of the country."

Activity 1: Stories for Children about Child Labor

Print copies of one or both of the stories available at Child Labor and Child Labor Reform in American History <http://www.history.ohio-state.edu/projects/childlabor/>. "Mr. Coal's Story" and "The Story of My Cotton Dress" originally appeared in the *Child Labor Bulletin*. They are more suitable for middle school students than for high school students. Have your students read one of the stories, either individually or aloud as a class. Discuss the following questions:

- Why was the story written?
- What do you learn about child labor in the early 1900s based on this story?
- What type of work did children perform?
- What were the hazards they faced at work?
- How did work affect their lives?
- What action did the story urge readers to take? How would this action help child workers?

For a written assignment, you could have students write letters as children in the early 1900s to either their representative in Congress or to the head of (depending on the story) a coal corporation or a cotton textile manufacturing company explaining why they think child labor should be outlawed.

Activity 2

Print out and make at least 5 copies of:

Amadon, Beulah. "Children Wanted." *Survey Graphic Magazine of Social Interpretation*, Vol. 26, No. 1 (January 1937). Available online at the New Deal Network <http://newdealfed.org/survey/37s01.htm>.

McConnell, Beatrice. "The Shift in Child Labor." *The Survey*, Vol. 69, No. 5 (May 1933). Available online at the New Deal Network <http://newdealfed.org/survey/s333.htm>.

Springer, Gertrude. "But the Children are Earning." *The Survey*, Vol. 70, No. 2 (February 1935). Available

online at the New Deal Network <http://newdeal.feri.org/survey/s352.htm>.

Alternatively, if your students have access to computers, you could have them read the articles online.

Have the students break into five groups. Assign each group one of the following topics:

- The Types of Work Children Did in the Early 20th Century
- The Positive Effects of the Great Depression on Child Labor
- The Negative Effects of the Great Depression on Child Labor
- The History of Child Labor Legislation in the United States
- Arguments For and Against Child Labor

Each group should read the articles and create a poster or presentation about its topic. For illustrations, they could download photographs from the Lewis Hine collection at the National Archives. Using the NARA Archival Information Locator <http://www.nara.gov/nara/searchnail.html>, they should choose "Digital Copies Search" and do a keyword search on "Lewis Hine" and "child labor" to find the photographs.

Possible Topics/Research Ideas for History Day Entries on Child Labor Reform

1. **Examine Organizational Motives and How They Changed**
   The National Child Labor Committee (NCLC), a group of middle class reformers organized in 1904, was incorporated by an act of Congress in 1907 to promote the interests of children. The Workers Education Bureau of America (WEB), organized in 1921, was a cooperative effort to strengthen workers' education. What were the motives for founding NCLC and WEB: to abolish child labor or to ameliorate the conditions under which children labored? Did motives change in response to obstacles set by law and public opinion? What role did NCLC and WEB leaders play in shaping organizational objectives? What is the NCLC and WEB legacy? What is the impact, if any, of that legacy today?

   Resources: The Library of Congress (Manuscripts Division) holds NCLC records. The Kheel Center for Labor Management Documentation & Archives (Cornell University) holds WEB records.

2. **Use the US Census**
   Most federal depository libraries, including many university and state libraries, have copies of the US census either in bound volumes or in microform versions. The Census Bureau puts out specialized volumes of the decennial censuses focusing on manufacturing. What they include varies, but typically they have information organized by industry and by state, county, or city. Find those volumes for the years 1900 to 1930. Examine the overall number of child laborers in America or in selected geographical locations. Were there drastic changes, e.g., reductions in child labor in specific industries? If so, did reductions in specific industries signal a corresponding decrease overall? What factors (e.g., war, depression, etc.) may have caused drastic changes in child labor employment trends?

   *NOTE: Students should acknowledge the limitations of census figures:

   - Census figures for child employment are not available after 1930, but beginning in 1920 many states and cities sent reports of employment certificates (issued to children) to the Children's Bureau.
   - Numbers only include children 10 years of age or older.
   - Numbers are often grossly understated for certain industries. For example, a census taken in April, when agriculture in many states is not in full swing–especially the hand processes for which children are primarily used–provides an incomplete count of children who work in the fields.
   - The numbers obscure the large number of children engaged in street trades and industrial homework.

   Resources: U.S. Bureau of the Census web site <http://www.census.gov>; National Archives (Children's Bureau–Record Group

Boys picking slate in a great coal breaker, anthracite mines, Pennsylvania. Underwood & Underwood, 1913. Library of Congress.

102); *Monthly Labor Review* (Bureau of Labor Statistics journal that includes reports on employment certificates previously mentioned).

3. **Examine Domestic Law**

Compare state law (e.g., restrictions on age, daily/weekly hours, night work, minimum wage, etc.) in two or more states prior to 1933. What are the minimum legal standards for child employment in each state? In 1933, under the National Industrial Recovery Act (Codes of Fair Competition), 16 years was set as the minimum age for industrial employment; in certain dangerous occupations the age limit was 18. What was the effect of NRA codes on state law after 1933? What was the effect on state law after 1935, when NRA codes were declared unconstitutional? Examine the development of federal child labor law: 1916–Child Labor Act; 1919–Child Labor Act; 1924–Proposed Child-Labor Amendment to the Constitution; 1933–National Industrial Recovery Act; 1938–Fair Labor Standards Act. What industries and forms of child labor did legislation regulate? What industries and work did legislation not regulate?

Resources: George Meany Memorial Archives (Legislation Department Records, 1906-1978; Vertical Files, 1882-1933); State Archives (state labor reports); National Archives (Department of Labor records) and its regional offices; University Publications of America–Labor Studies Research Collections (microform).

4. **Examine International Law**

The International Labour Organization (ILO), created in Paris, France, in 1919, convened its first international labor conference that year in Washington, DC, where it adopted the first six International Labour Conventions (treaties) that included age and night work prohibitions for child labor. In November 2000, the ILO announced that 49 of its member states ratified a convention to eliminate the worst forms of child labor for children younger than 18. Research the history of ILO child labor standards and their enforcement. Do all ILO members have a minimum level of compulsory education? Is there more enforcement of child labor laws by some ILO members (e.g., industrialized, high-tech) than by others (e.g., agrarian, low-tech)? What is ILO's role in regulating child labor: humanitarian, political, economic?

Resources: ILO-International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) web site: <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/index.htm>.

5. **Examine Public Opinion**

Congress is subject to pressure from many directions. Businesses and individuals that want to continue to employ children, or are unfriendly to prohibitive legislation, are in constant contact with members of Congress, lobbying them not to pass child labor laws or to pass laws in a form that would be ineffective. Such pressure is offset by opponents of child labor. Public opinion can make itself felt through mass media, pulpit, public meeting, committees, letters/ telegrams, religious, civic and labor organizations, parents, teachers and students. What organizations (national, state, community) worked to support the 1924 child labor amendment? Why? What groups opposed the amendment? Why?

Resources: The American Federation of Labor was one of over twenty national organizations that worked for passage of the 1924 child labor amendment. George Meany Memorial Archives holdings that document AFL sentiment include: *The American Federationist* (monthly journal), 1894-1982); Pamphlets (AFL, CIO), 1889-present.

The George Meany Memorial Archives

The George Meany Memorial Archives is the official repository for the historical records of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO). The AFL-CIO, a voluntary federation of 68 national and international labor unions representing 13 million workers, is committed to heightening awareness of the important roles that working men, women and children have played in our country's history.

The AFL-CIO sponsors National History Day's Labor History Award, presented annually at the national competition to the best senior and junior division entries that interpret labor history. The student(s) must research at least one person, place, event, object or tenet (e.g., organized or unorganized workers; skilled or unskilled workers; racial, gender or class exclusion or solidarity, etc.) in labor history and analyze the topic's past and present impact. The entry should bring public awareness to workers' history and to resources available for the further exploration of this subject.

Teachers' Guides, including one for Child Labor: <http://www.georgemeany.org/teachers.html>

Child Labor Pathfinder to primary and secondary sources at The George Meany Memorial Archives: <http://www.georgemeany.org/child.html>

Student Page: <http://www.georgemeany.org/students.html>

We welcome feedback on these instructional activities and on our web site. Contact Lynda DeLoach, Archivist, The George Meany Memorial Archives, 10000 New Hampshire Avenue, Silver Spring, MD 20903; 301/431-5441.

CHINA'S ENTRY INTO THE KOREAN WAR:
Conflicting Accounts

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American soldiers near the front lines in Korea, 1951. U.S. Army.

In the immediate aftermath of World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union jockeyed for influence in northeast Asia. In the longstanding civil war which had racked China for years, the Soviet-backed Communist Chinese, led by Mao Zedong, made huge advances and finally drove the US-backed Nationalist Chinese into exile on Taiwan in 1949. Meanwhile, the Korean peninsula was divided at the 38th parallel. With the support of the Soviet Union, North Korea became a Communist nation led by Kim Il Sung, while South Korea established a pro-Western government allied with the United States. At first, both the USSR and the US maintained troops on the Korean peninsula, but each side withdrew its troops by 1950.

In June 1950, with Soviet encouragement, North Korea invaded South Korea. President Harry Truman quickly rushed US troops to South Korea and the United Nations voted to make the defense of South Korea a UN responsibility. Nevertheless, the North Korean invasion proved very successful. By September, UN and South Korean troops were pinned down around Pusan in the southern part of South Korea. On September 15th, General Douglas MacArthur led a surprise invasion at Inchon in the central part of the peninsula. Caught off guard, 125,000 North Korean troops surrendered, and UN troops rapidly moved northward, crossing the 38th parallel into North Korea. As the UN neared complete victory, Joseph Stalin, the leader of the Soviet Union, and Mao Zedong, the leader of Communist China, consulted on how they should react to the UN advance. Stalin wanted the beleaguered North Koreans to receive help in their battle against the US-led UN troops. However, he believed that his own country, devastated by World War II, could not afford to supply that help itself. Instead, he pressed Mao to come to the aid of their fellow Communists. Having claimed complete control of China just a year earlier, Mao, Zhou Enlai, and other Chinese Communist leaders had mixed feelings about going to war. On October 13, believing that China would not join the war, Stalin decided to abandon North Korea and evacuate its Communist government to China and the Soviet Union. The Chinese immediately informed him that they had decided to fight, so Stalin changed his mind. In November, as UN forces approached the Yalu River, the border between North Korea and China, more than 180,000 Chinese troops joined the war. This Chinese reaction caught the UN troops completely off guard, and they began a dizzying retreat. The war ended in 1953 with a truce.

This lesson examines one of the critical pieces of communication during the negotiations between Mao and Stalin, a telegram which Mao sent to Stalin on October 2, 1950. There are two versions of it, one from the Russian archives and another from the Chinese archives, providing a great object lesson in the need to evaluate sources. The differences between the versions give students a chance to use their detective skills to try to figure out which version is more reliable.

Objectives

- To evaluate conflicting primary

sources.

- To explain the advantages and disadvantages for China of entering the Korean War.
- To evaluate different perspectives.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- The student understands why global power shifts took place and the Cold War broke out in the aftermath of World War II (World History Standards, Era 9: The 20th Century Since 1945: Promises and Paradoxes, Standard 1B).
- Consider multiple perspectives; analyze cause-and-effect relationships and multiple causation, including the importance of the individual, the influence of ideas, and the role of chance; compare competing historical narratives (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Analysis and Interpretation, Standard 3D, E, and G).
- Interrogate historical data; identify the gaps in the available records, marshal contextual knowledge and perspectives of the time and place, and construct a sound historical interpretation (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Research Capabilities, Standard 4C and D).

Activity 1

Have your students read the section of their textbook about the Korean War or summarize the above information for them. Give half of your students a copy of Document 1, and give the other half a copy of Document 2. Ask them to read their document and write a one-paragraph summary of it. Ask for volunteers to read their summaries aloud. Alternatively, you could have students read each document aloud and then summarize them as a class.

Tell the students that the two documents supposedly are the exact same telegram from Mao to Stalin. Ask them as a class or in small groups to speculate about why the two versions might be so different. Some possibilities: one might be misdated; one might be an earlier draft after which Mao changed his mind and wrote a very different draft; one might be a fake; there may have been errors in the transmission or in the translation of the telegram.

Have the students work in small groups, using the "Evaluating Conflicting Sources" worksheet. Give the students copies of Documents 3 and 4. Ask each group to decide which version of Mao's telegram to Stalin they believe to be correct and why. Reassure them that while historians cannot always determine with 100% certainty which source to believe, they can make well-considered judgments.

Activity 2

Assign your students to assume the role of an adviser to Mao Zedong in early October 1950 and write a paper advising Mao about the pros and cons of entering the war. They may conduct further research

on the situation in China in 1950 and on the early months of the Korean War. They can use the documents and articles from the *Cold War International History Project Bulletin*, issues 6-7 and 8-9, available on the CWIHP web site. <http://cwihp.si.edu>.

How to Use this Lesson for History Day Entries

The Cold War, involving revolutions and reactions to revolutions, provides many excellent topics for History Day entries. Many of the events–McCarthyism, China's entry into Korea, the Cuban Missile Crisis, the tearing down of the Berlin Wall–lend themselves to dramatic performances, while students creating exhibits or documentaries will find a rich visual record. Newspapers and magazines dating from this period are readily available all over the country, providing both journalists' reporting of the Cold War and photographs. Video clips should also be easily obtainable, and many of the people involved are still alive for oral history interviews. The Cold War International History Project has printed many documents from governmental archives all over the world; these are all available on the CWIHP web site. The Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson presidential libraries and the National Archives and Records Administration also have many records available, some online and many others at the institutions (see the National Archives' web site at http://www.nara. gov for links to the presidential libraries). In addition, many participants have written memoirs.

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Mao Zedong and his wife Lan Ping. Library of Congress.

Evaluating Conflicting Sources

Do you have any ideas about how to determine which version of the telegram is likelier to be more accurate? Imagine that one of your best friends tells you about a fight at a party, then another good friend gives you a completely different version of the fight. How would you figure out what actually happened?

Here are three standards for evaluating evidence:

1. **Consider the source.** How was the source created? Is it [or the person who created it] reliable? If the source is a copy of an original document, is there any reason to doubt its authenticity? If the source is translated, what do you know about the translator? Is the translator reliable? If the source you are using is from a published collection, be sure to read the introduction and annotations, which often are helpful in explaining how the documents in the collection were created.

   In this case, based on the information provided with each document, which version of the telegram seems more reliable? Among the factors you should consider: Who translated the document? Did the translator have access to the original? For Document 1, how and by whom was the telegram transmitted to Stalin? Might the method of transmission have introduced any errors into the telegram? Does that seem likely to explain why the entire telegram could be so different than the Chinese version? For Document 2, another factor to consider is that we don't know for sure if this is the actual telegram which Mao sent. When a telegram is sent, the telegraph operator who sends it has a copy of what he or she is supposed to send, not a copy of what is actually transmitted; the telegraph operator who receives the telegram prints a copy of what is actually sent. Since the telegram originated in China, the Chinese would not have a copy of the telegram as actually transmitted. Although the document in the Chinese archives is called "Mao Telegram to Stalin," it is possible that this is not what was actually sent; for example, it could be an earlier draft of the telegram which was discarded and never sent.

2. **Is there any corroborating evidence?** Does the information in this source agree with what you have found in any other primary sources? Does any other source mention all or part of this information? Does any other source indicate similar circumstances? Does any other source seem to be a response to or a result of the information found in this source?

   In the case of Mao's telegram, there is some corroboration available. Read Documents 3 and 4. Which version of the telegram do the documents corroborate? Both of these documents come from the Russian archives. Ideally, there would be corroboration from either North Korean or Chinese documents, but the archives of those nations are not normally open to Western scholars.

3. **Consider the context.** Does the source make sense in terms of what was happening at the time? Does it fit in with what happened earlier or later? Is the behavior described typical or unusual for the people involved?

   Given the information in the introduction above or what you learned in your reading, does it seem likely to you that Mao and the Chinese would have been eager to go to war or not? Are the reasons given in Document 1 for not entering the war plausible? Since we know that the Chinese, in fact, did enter the war within a few weeks of the telegram, does that mean Document 2 is likelier to be the more accurate version of the October 2nd telegram? Or could other events have intervened, such as Stalin answering Mao's concerns?

4. **Summary**
   Having evaluated the two sources based on the above criteria, which version of the telegram do you believe to be accurate? Why?

Document 1

Ciphered telegram from [Soviet Ambassador to China N.V.] Roshchin in Beijing to Filippov [Stalin], 3 October 1950, conveying 2 October 1950 message from Mao to Stalin

CIPHERED TELEGRAM No. 25199

Copies: Stalin (2), Molotov, Malenkov, Beria, Mikoyan, Kaganovich, Bulganin

From BEIJING Received 12:15 3.10.1950

TOP PRIORITY T

TO FILIPPOV [STALIN]

I report the answer of MAO ZEDONG to your [telegram] No. 4581:

"I received your telegram of 1.10.50 [1 October 1950]. We originally planned to move several volunteer divisions to North Korea to render assistance to the Korean comrades when the enemy advanced north of the 38th parallel.

However, having thought this over thoroughly, we now consider that such actions may entail extremely serious consequences.

In the first place, it is very difficult to resolve the Korean question with a few divisions (our troops are extremely poorly equipped, there is no confidence in the success of military operations against American troops), the enemy can force us to retreat.

In the second place, it is most likely that this will provoke an open conflict between the USA and China, as a consequence of which the Soviet Union can also be dragged into war, and the questions would thus become extremely large [kraine bol'shim].

Many comrades in the CC CPC [Central Committee of the Communist Party of China] judge that it is necessary to show caution here.

Of course, not to send out troops to render assistance is very bad for the Korean comrades, who are presently in such difficulty, and we ourselves feel this keenly; but if we advance several divisions and the enemy forces us to retreat; and this moreover provokes an open conflict between the USA and China, then our entire plan for peaceful construction will be completely ruined, and many people in the country will be dissatisfied (the wounds inflicted on the people by the war have not yet healed, we need peace).

Therefore it is better to show patience now, refrain from advancing troops, [and] actively prepare our forces, which will be more advantageous at the time of war with the enemy.

Korea, while temporarily suffering defeat, will change the form of the struggle to partisan war.

We will convene a meeting of the CC, at which will be present the main comrades of various bureaus of the CC. A final decision has not been taken on this question. This is our preliminary telegram, we wish to consult with you. If you agree, then we are ready immediately to send by plane Comrades ZHOU ENLAI and LIN BIAO to your vacation place, to talk over this matter with you and to report the situation in China and Korea.

We await your reply.

MAO ZEDONG 2.10.50"

[What follows are the comments of Soviet Ambassador Roshchin which he added to Mao's telegram.]

1. In our view MAO ZEDONG's answer is indicative of a change in the original position of the Chinese leadership on the Korean question. It contradicts the earlier appraisal, which was repeatedly expressed in conversations of MAO ZEDONG with YUDIN, KOTOV and KONNOV; [and] LILU SHAOQI with me, which were reported at the time. In these conversations, it was noted by them that the people and the PLA [People's Liberation Army] are ready to help the Korean people, the fighting spirit of the PLA is high and it is able, if necessary, to defeat the American troops, regarding them as weaker than the Japanese.
2. The Chinese government undoubtedly could send to Korea not only five-six battle ready divisions, but even more. It goes without saying that these Chinese troops are in need of some technical equipping in antitank weapons and to some extent in artillery.

The reasons for the changes in the position of the Chinese are not yet clear to us. It is possible to suppose that it has been influenced by the international situation, the worsening of the position in Korea, [and] the intrigues of the Anglo-American bloc through [Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal] NEHRU, who has urged the Chinese toward patience and abstention [from intervention] in order to avoid catastrophe.

ROSHCHIN

No. 2270 3.10

Dec[iphered by] Araushin 12.50 3.10 [12:50 p.m. 3 October]
Typ[ed by] Doronchenkova 13.20 3.10 [1:20 p.m. 3 October]
Typ[ed in] 10 copies [copies no.] 9-10 - (to file)

Source: Archive of the President, Russian Federation, fond 45, opis 1, delo 334, listy 105-106; translation by Kathryn Weathersby and Alexandre Mansourov.

Reprinted by permission from Alexandre Y. Mansourov, "Stalin, Mao, Kim, and China's Decision to Enter the Korean War, September 16-October 15, 1950: New Evidence from the Russian Archives," *Cold War International History Project Bulletin*, 6-7 (Winter 1995/1996): 114-15.

This document was translated as part of a joint project of the Center for Korean Research of Columbia University and the Cold War International History Project of the Smithsonian Institution's Woodrow Wilson Center for International Scholars. The translators, who are affiliated with the Cold War International History Project, made this translation from the original document, which came directly from the Russian archives. It is part of a collection of original Soviet documents which were declassified and made available to researchers after the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Document 2

Mao Telegram to Stalin re the Decision to Send Troops to Korea, October 2, 1950

1. *We have decided to send some of our troops to Korea under the name of [Chinese People's] Volunteers to fight the United States and its lackey Syngman Rhee and to aid our Korean comrades. From the following considerations, we think it necessary to do so: the Korean revolutionary force will meet with a fundamental defeat, and the American aggressors will rampage unchecked once they occupy the whole of Korea. This will be unfavorable to the entire East.*

2. *Since we have decided to send Chinese troops to fight the Americans in Korea, we hold that, first, we should be able to solve the problem; that is, [we are] ready to annihilate and drive out the invading armies of the United States and other countries. Second, since Chinese troops are to fight American troops in Korea (although we will use the name Volunteers), we must be prepared for a declaration of war by the United States and for the subsequent use of the U.S. air force to bomb many of China's main cities and industrial bases, as well as an attack by the U.S. navy on [our] coastal areas.*

3. *Of these two problems, the primary problem is whether or not the Chinese troops can annihilate the American troops in Korea and effectively resolve the Korean issue. Only when it is possible for our troops to annihilate the American troops in Korea, principally the Eighth Army (an old army with combat effectiveness), can the situation become favorable to the revolutionary camp and to China, although the second problem (a declaration of war by the United States) is still a serious one. This means that the Korean issue will be solved in reality along with the defeat of American troops (in name it probably will remain unsolved because the United States most likely will not admit Korea's victory for a considerable period of time). Consequently, even if the United States declares war on China, the war will probably not be of great scope or last long. The most unfavorable situation, we hold, would result from the inability of the Chinese troops to annihilate American troops in Korea and the involvement of the two countries' troops in a stalemate while the United States publicly declares war on China, undermines the plans for China's economic reconstruction, which has already begun, and sparks the dissatisfaction of [China's] national bourgeoisie and other segments of the people (they are very afraid of war).*

4. *Under the current situation, we have reached a decision to order the 12 divisions stationed in advance in South Manchuria to set off on October 15. They will be deployed in appropriate areas in North Korea (not necessarily reaching to the 38th parallel). On the one hand, they will fight the enemies who dare to cross the 38th parallel. At the initial stage, they will merely engage in defensive warfare to wipe out small detachments of enemy troops and ascertain the enemy's situation; on the other hand, they will wait for the delivery of Soviet weapons. Once they are [well] equipped, they will cooperate with the Korean comrades in counterattacks to annihilate American aggressor troops.*

5. *According to our intelligence to date, an American corps (composed of two infantry divisions and a mechanized division) has 1,500 guns of 70mm to 240mm caliber, including tank cannons and anti-aircraft guns. In comparison, each of our corps (composed of three divisions) has only 36 such guns. The enemy dominates the air. By comparison, we have only just started training pilots. We shall not be able to employ more than 300 aircraft in combat until February 1951. Accordingly, we do not now have any certainty of success in annihilating a single American corps in one blow. Since we have made the decision to fight the Americans, we certainly must be prepared to deal with a situation in which the U.S. headquarters will employ one American corps against our troops in one [of the Korean] theaters. For the purpose of eliminating completely one enemy corps with a certainty of success, we should in such a situation assemble four times as many troops as the enemy (employing four corps to deal with one enemy corps) and firepower from one-and-a-half times to twice as heavy as the enemy's (using 2,200 to 3,000 guns of more than 70mm caliber to deal with 1,500 enemy guns of the same caliber).*

6. *In addition to the above-mentioned 12 divisions, we are moving 24 divisions from south of the Yangtze River and from Shaanxi and Gansu provinces to areas along the Xuzhou-Lanzhou, Tianjin-Pukou, and Beijing-Shenyang railroad lines. We plan to employ these divisions as the second and third groups of troops sent to aid Korea in the spring and summer of next year as the future situation requires.*

From *Uncertain Partners: Stalin, Mao, and the Korean War*, by Sergei N. Goncharov, John W. Lewis, and Xue Litai. Used with the permission of the publishers, Stanford University Press. Copyright 1993 by the Board of Trustees of the Leland Stanford Junior University.

Source: Translated by Sergei Goncharov, John Lewis, and Xue Litai from a published version of the telegram which appeared in an official publication of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, *Jianguo Yilai Mao Zedong Wengao Diyi Ce (1949.9-1950.12)* (Beijing: Central Documents Publishing House, 1987), pp. 539-541.

Document 3

Letter, Fyn Si [Stalin] to Kim Il Sung (via Shtykov), 8 October 1950

PYONGYANG, To Shtykov for Kim Il Sung

Comrade Kim Il Sung!

My reply has been delayed because of my consultations with the Chinese comrades, which took several days. On 1 October, I sent a letter to Mao Zedong, inquiring whether he could dispatch to Korea immediately at least five or six divisions under the cover of which our Korean comrades could form reserve troops. Mao Zedong replied with a refusal, saying that he did not want to draw the USSR into the war, that the Chinese army was weak in technical terms, and that the war would cause great dissatisfaction [nedovol'stvo] in China.

[Stalin goes on to describe his reply to Mao and what he plans on doing].

F Y N S I [STALIN]

Source: Archive of the President, Russian Federation, fond 45, opis 1, delo 347, listy 65-67; translation by Kathryn Weathersby and Alexandre Mansourov.

Reprinted by permission from Mansourov, "Stalin, Mao, Kim, and China's Decision," 116-17.

Document 4

Ciphered Telegram, Fyn Si (Stalin) to Kim Il Sung (via Shtykov), 13 October 1950

Ciphered Telegram #75525/4/6759 (incoming #3735/shs) (Stalin's hand-written note)

PYONGYANG To SHTYKOV for Comrade Kim Il Sung

I have just received a telegram from Mao Zedong in which he reports that the CC CPC [Central Committee of the Communist Party of China] discussed the situation [in Korea - AM] again and decided after all to render military assistance to the Korean comrades, regardless of the insufficient armament of the Chinese troops. I am awaiting detailed reports about this matter from Mao Zedong. In connection with this new decision of the Chinese comrades, I ask You to postpone temporarily the implementation of the telegram sent to You yesterday about the evacuation of North Korea and the retreat of the Korean troops to the north.

F Y N S I [STALIN]
13 Oct 1950

Source: Archive of the President, Russian Federation, fond 45, opis 1, delo 347, listy 74-75; translation by Kathryn Weathersby and Alexandre Mansourov.

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CAMPAIGNS OF TRUTH:
Propaganda during the Cold War

Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary defines propaganda as "the spreading of ideas, information, or rumor for the purpose of helping or injuring an institution, a cause, or a person," or "ideas, facts, or allegations spread deliberately to further one's cause or to damage an opposing cause." Propagandists, just like advertisers, try to influence opinion and create or strengthen certain attitudes or induce specific actions.

During the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union engaged in a battle for the hearts and minds of people around the world. Both sides had substantial experience with propaganda. Propaganda had been an important weapon for the Communists before they took power; Lenin, in fact, called propaganda the Bolshevik (Communist) Revolution's main weapon. Immediately after the Russian Revolution, the Bolsheviks organized "propaganda trains" which traveled around the countryside, promoting the new government and trying to win support for their vision of the future. Propaganda played an important role in the 1920s and 1930s, with the origins of the Cult of Lenin, the founding of Radio Moscow, and other activities. Soviet propagandists became experts at airbrushing people out of photographs as they fell into disfavor, especially with the Stalinist purges of the 1930s. During World War II, propaganda was critical in rallying the Soviet people to resist German invasion. Meanwhile, the US government ventured into propaganda during World War I, as the Committee of Public Information engaged in propagandistic activities at home and abroad. During World War II, the Office of War Information served a similar role, and the Voice of America joined the British Broadcasting Corporation in broadcasting to occupied countries.

When the Cold War began, it was natural that both sides would look to propaganda as a means of waging a nonviolent war. Vladimir Pozner, Soviet journalist and television commentator, observed, "The Cold War was really a propaganda war; it was not a hot war, in which all sides participated very, very actively. It was a struggle for people's minds. That's what propaganda is about." The Soviets got a head start in the struggle as they spread revolution in eastern and central Europe. President Harry Truman in 1950 reacted to these revolutions by calling on Americans to "make ourselves heard around the world" in "a great campaign of truth" for the purpose of countering "deceit, distortion and lies used in a deliberate campaign by our adversaries." The United States government funded Radio Free Europe and Radio Liberty to broadcast to the Soviet bloc, for the express purpose of promoting democratic values and institutions and free-market economics, while the Voice of America broadcast around the world. Unlike the Soviet Union's Radio Moscow, however, these US-funded stations normally adhered to the highest journalistic standards. At home, the Federal Civil Defense Administration engaged in efforts to prepare the American people for nuclear war.

Objectives

- To identify the techniques used in propaganda.
- To analyze the effectiveness of examples of propaganda.
- To examine the purpose and role of propaganda during the Cold War.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- Draw upon visual, literary, and musical sources (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Comprehension, Standard 2G).
- Obtain historical data; interrogate historical data (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Research Capabilities, Standard 4B, C).
- The student understands why global power shifts took place and the Cold War broke out in the aftermath of World War II (World History Standards, Era 9: The 20th Century since 1945, Promises and Paradoxes, Standard 1B).

Preparation

Go over with your students the different types of propaganda techniques described in this lesson. Also have them read their textbooks or other secondary sources about the early Cold War and the 1950s.

Activity 1

Break your students into groups and give each copies of the Propaganda Analysis Worksheet. Give each group a different piece of propaganda. Ask each group to analyze its piece, using the Propaganda Analysis Worksheet, and then give a brief oral presentation to the class, describing its piece and evaluating its likely effectiveness. For the propaganda, use one or more of the following:

1) The posters reprinted in this lesson. Additional posters are available on the NHD web site at <http://www.NationalHistoryDay.org/>.

2) The translated East German speeches or other documents in the German Propaganda Archive at Calvin College <http://www.calvin.edu/academic/cas/gpa/gdrmain.htm>.

3) *The Chairman Smiles: Posters from the former Soviet Union, Cuba, and China* from the International Institute of Social History <http://www.iisg.nl/exhibitions/chairman/index.html>.

4) The video clips available on the Institute for Propaganda Analysis's web site <http://carmen.artsci.washington.edu/propaganda/video/index.html>.

Activity 2

As a homework assignment, have students do oral history with older family members or neighbors who remember the 1950s and share their results, either in oral or written reports. The students should ask what the interviewees remember thinking about Communism, the Soviet Union, and the Cold War.

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Why did they think that way? Do they remember anything in popular culture (movies, television, comic books, etc.) which portrayed Communists in a bad light? Do they remember any civil defense drills? How did the air-raid drills affect them?

Activity 3

Some propaganda was directed at children, and the Soviet Union and its satellites had organizations specifically for children, usually called Young Pioneers or something similar.

From the German Propaganda Archive <http://www.calvin.edu/academic/cas/gpa/gdrmain.htm>, print out *The Rules of the Thalmann Pioneers*, the East German organization for 4th to 7th graders. Also go to the PBS Redfiles web site <http://www.pbs.orgredfiles/prop/deep>, click on Interviews, then on Tatiana Vorontsova, and print out the interview. Tatiana Vorontsova was a member of the Soviet Union's Pioneer organization as a young child.

Have two students read the first page of the Vorontsova interview aloud to the class, one taking the role of the interviewer and the other of Vorontsova. Have the students discuss:

- What the Pioneers organization was.
- Why Soviet children wanted to be a part of it.
- Who Pavlik Morozov was.
- What the Pavlik Morozov story teaches about parent-child relations in the Soviet Union: what came first, your family or the state?

Now have students read *The Rules of the Thalmann Pioneers*, with different students reading the different rules. Discuss why those rules were in effect and how the rule book itself could be considered propaganda.

For a written assignment, you could have students write a letter as an American student visiting the Soviet Union or East Germany. In the letter, they should tell a friend how life for children in the Communist country compares to their own lives.

Enrichment and Extension

1. Remind students that propaganda is not limited to national governments. Private organizations, individuals, and advertisers all use propaganda, too. Have students share examples of propaganda which they see in their daily lives, such as on television or in magazines or newspapers. Have them explain why they consider this propaganda: What is its purpose? How does the message try to accomplish that purpose? What tactics and symbols or images

Chinese poster, caption reads: Seven hundred million people of China are the powerful backup force of the South Vietnamese people. Library of Congress.

Truman Library.

does it use? For a written assignment, have them write responses to the examples they chose.

2. Have students choose an issue that is important to them and create their own propaganda poster. Display all the posters and have students vote on the one which is the best propaganda.
3. Have students write a paper about the differences between Communist-bloc and American propaganda. They could use the interviews with Soviet media people and Alexander Haig on the PBS Redfiles web site <http://www.pbs.org/redfiles/prop/deep/prop_deep_inter_frm.htm> and the "Materials for Propagandists" on the German Propaganda Archive <http://www.calvin.edu/academic/cas/gpa/gdrman.htm>.

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Unless otherwise noted, all images used in this lesson courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration.

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Propaganda Techniques

The Institute for Propaganda Analysis at the University of Washington has identified the following propaganda techniques:

A. Word Games

1. Name Calling: This technique involves using a name or word to connect a person or idea to something seen as unpopular or bad, so that the person or idea will be rejected without much thought. This can be blatant, such as the use of insulting or derogatory names like "Nazi" or "pink-o." Sometimes it can be more subtle, the choice of a word with a negative connotation rather than a positive or neutral word, such as describing a person as "overbearing" instead of "demanding."

2. Glittering Generalities: In this case, the propagandist twists the meaning of a word which has great symbolic value to describe something else, counting on the listener or reader to not realize that the propagandist's meaning is different and to respond positively, as he or she would to the original meaning. For example, someone might justify an action as "scientific" when it has nothing to do with science; calling it scientific, however, makes it sound reliable and objective to most people.

3. Euphemisms: This is using a milder and/or less evocative word to make a situation or object seem less threatening or unpleasant or to make something seem better than it is. For example, when they raise taxes, legislators often prefer to call it "revenue enhancement" rather than a tax hike.

B. False Connections

1. Transfer: In the transfer technique, the propagandist uses symbols to associate his or her program with a respected and revered institution, suggesting institutional approval of the program. A cross might be used to imply support from Christian churches or a presidential seal might be used (illegally) to suggest presidential support.

2. Testimonial: Testimonials are a well-known way of adding credibility to a position. Experts or celebrities testify to the value of the product or position. Keep in mind, however, that the person offering the testimonial might not be any more well-qualified to judge than an average person off the street.

C. Special Appeals

1. Plain-Folks: In this technique, frequently used by politicians, the speaker tries to come across as an ordinary citizen or a man or woman "of the people," with the same concerns and problems as everyone else, even if nothing could be farther from the truth.

2. Band Wagon: This technique plays on the desire of people to fit in with the crowd by making it seem as if everyone in that person's group is already in favor of a particular position or taking the desired action.

3. Fear: This technique takes advantage of people's fears, warning that if they do not take a particular action or support a particular position, their fears will come true. It tries to get people to do certain things to avoid their fears coming true, such as building a bomb shelter to survive nuclear war.

Propaganda Analysis Worksheet

1. Describe the format of the propaganda:

☐ poster	☐ brochure	☐ advertisement
☐ movie	☐ song	☐ story
☐ other (describe):		

2. What is the intended audience?

3. What propaganda techniques are used?

☐ name calling	☐ glittering generalities
☐ euphemisms	☐ transfer
☐ testimonial	☐ plain-folks
☐ band wagon	☐ fear

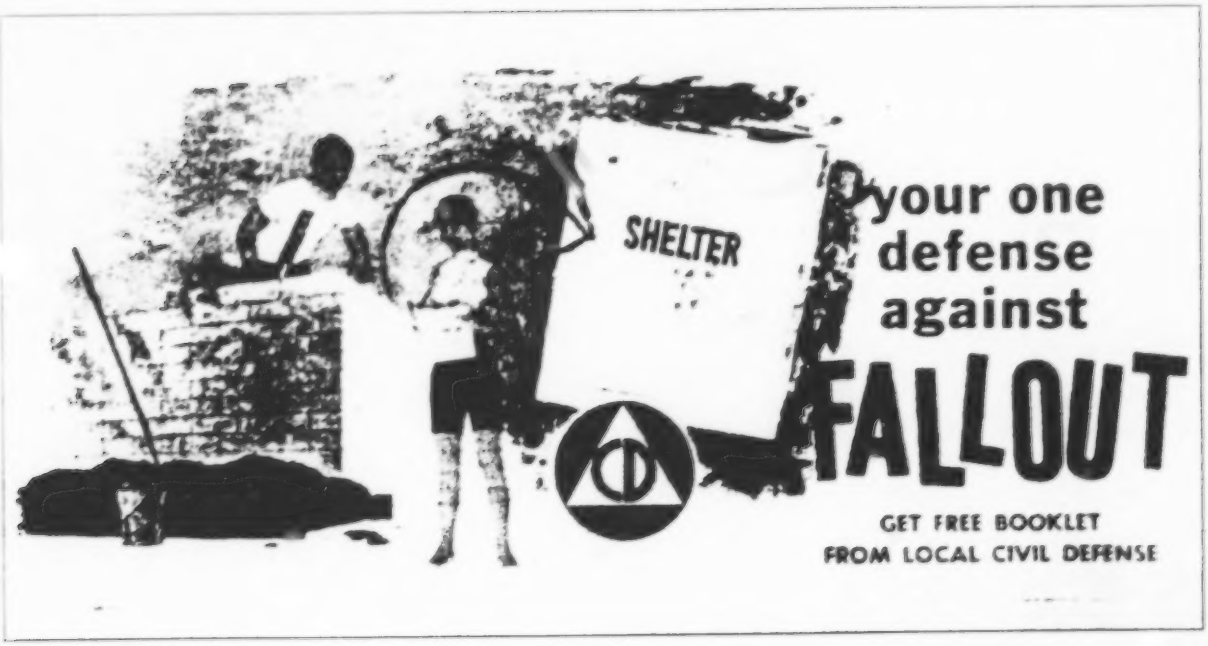
4. What visual images, if any, appear in the propaganda? What do these images symbolize? What emotions do they seek to arouse?

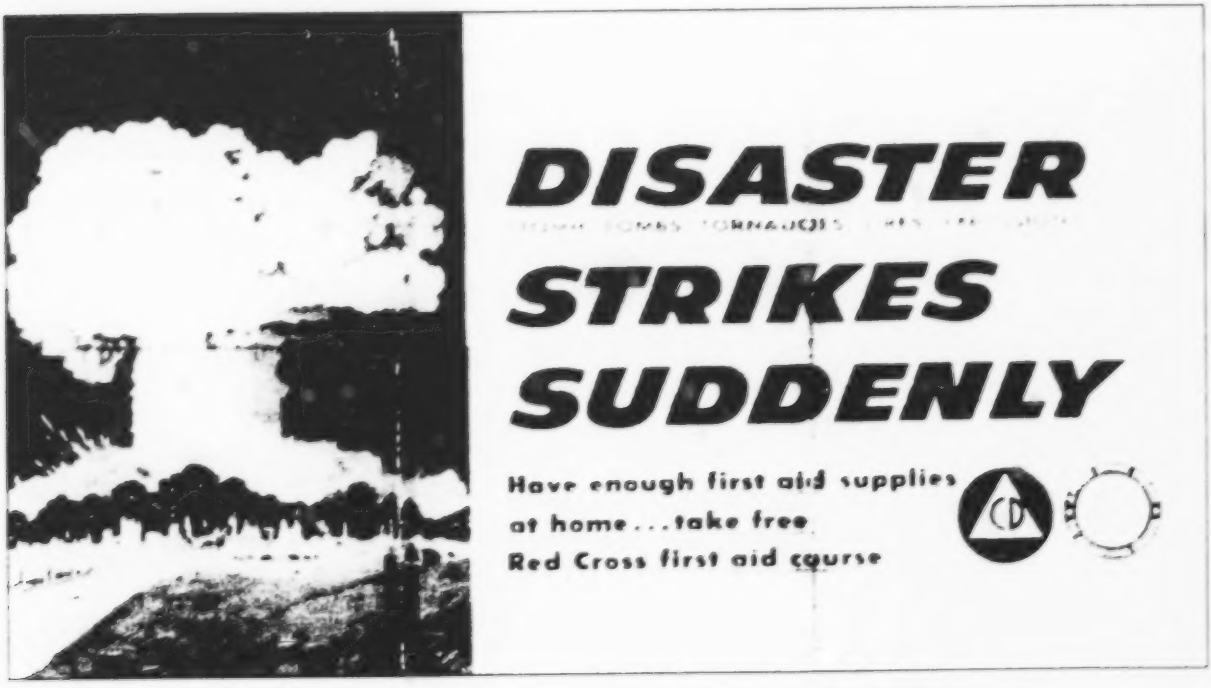
5. What are the key words used? What emotions do those words seek to arouse?

6. What is the purpose of this propaganda? What is it trying to get people to do or feel?

7. On a scale of 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective), rate the effectiveness of this propaganda?

Why did you give the propaganda that rating?





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SURVIVE

ON THE HIGHWAY
...AND AT HOME

...The intelligent driver safeguards himself, his family and others on the road.

■ The intelligent citizen safeguards himself and his family from peacetime accident or disaster -- and also from enemy attack.

you should know !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

1 WARNING SIGNALS

2 your COMMUNITY PLAN for emergency action.

3 protection from radioactive fallout -- build a HOME SHELTER.

4 FIRST AID (Red Cross+ course).

5 use of CONELRAD 640 OR 1240 ON YOUR RADIO.

Preparedness is EVERYONE'S responsibility. For more information, contact your local Civil Defense Office,

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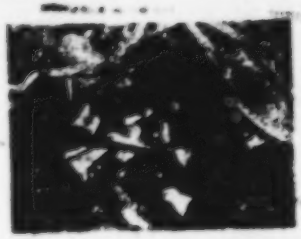
WHY YOU NEED...

CIVIL DEFENSE RESCUE TRAINING



WAYS YOU CAN GET CIVIL DEFENSE RESCUE TRAINING.

1 Check with your local or State civil defense director. He may have a rescue school in operation, or may be able to furnish your group with an instructor.

2 Federal Civil Defense Administration operates a Rescue School at Olney, Md. For further information write to: Director, FCDA Rescue School, Olney, Md.

3 Interest your fellow workers and friends in forming a rescue class. Have men in your group enroll in a rescue school and return to teach others.

DO IT NOW. A DISASTER WON'T WAIT FOR YOU TO GET READY!

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"YOU SAY YOU WANT A REVOLUTION": The Reaction of Beatles' Fans to Immigration Law

by Lee Ann Potter, Education Specialist, National Archives and Records Administration

During the first week of April 1964, the Beatles held the top five slots on the *Billboard* Pop Singles Chart. *Can't Buy Me Love*, *Twist and Shout*, *She Loves You*, *I Want to Hold Your Hand*, and *Please Please Me*–all by the British rock band–were outselling every other record in the United States. A revolution in popular music was taking place. That same week, the U.S. Department of Labor issued a press release announcing a new policy–a reform of existing policy–that would affect foreign entertainers coming to the United States for temporary employment. The press release was misinterpreted by a number of organizations and individuals who claimed that the new policy would prevent the Beatles from ever returning to the United States to perform. Once this claim was made public, fans of the Beatles reacted by sending hundreds of letters and petitions to U.S. government officials. In their letters, American teenagers asked, begged, and demanded that the Beatles be allowed to return. This labor reform nearly interrupted a music revolution and caused teenagers to stage their own revolution!

Willard Wirtz, Secretary of Labor. National Archives and Records Administration.

Objectives

- To analyze letters.
- To identify techniques used by individuals to influence the actions of government officials.
- To evaluate the power of the press.
- To explain the roles played by the Department of Labor, the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), and the State Department with regard to temporary employment of foreign entertainers.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- Identify the author or source of the historical document or narrative; consider multiple perspectives (Standards in Historical Thinking: Historical Analysis and Interpretation, Standard 3A and D).
- Marshal evidence of antecedent circumstances and contemporary factors contributing to problems and alternative courses of action

(Standards in Historical Thinking: Historical Issues-Analysis and Decision-Making, Standard 5B).

- The student understands how the social changes of the postwar period affected various Americans (Standards in United States History, Era 9: Postwar United States, 1945 to early 1970s, Standard 1B).

Background

In late 1963 and early 1964, individuals and unions affiliated with the AFL-CIO, including the American Federation of Musicians (AFM) and the American Guild of Musical Artists (AGMA), complained to the U.S. government about foreign entertainers taking jobs from Americans. They objected to entertainers from abroad being excluded from certain provisions in the Immigration and Nationality Act. Under the act, before foreign workers could come into the United States for temporary employment, the Department of Labor had to ascertain that there were no American workers available or qualified to perform the work–except in cases involving artists, authors, music composers, athletes, trainers, coaches, managers, persons employed by religious organizations, and entertainers, regardless of their talent.

Lengthy negotiations among the Department of Labor, the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), the State Department, and the unions resulted in the Department of Labor taking the responsibility to extend its clearance procedure to include entertainers. Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz wrote, "While this is a difficult responsibility to assume, we are nevertheless undertaking it, effective April 15, in order to protect American workers."

Under the new procedure, an entertainer wishing to come to the United States would apply through INS. INS would decide whether the entertainer fit into one of two previously defined categories. The first category was for entertainers of distinguished merit and ability. The second category was for performers with no unique talents. If the entertainer fell into the first category, INS would permit entry, and the Department of Labor would not be involved. If the entertainer fell into the second category, INS would forward his or her application to the Department of Labor, which would then utilize its clearance order procedure to determine whether American workers were available to perform the employment. If they were, the Department of Labor would so certify to INS and INS would bar the entry of the foreign entertainer.

This new procedure was announced in a Labor Department press release on April 3, 1964–the same week that the Beatles held the top five slots on the *Billboard* chart. It was well received by Hy Faine, the National Executive Secretary of the American Guild of Musical Artists. Faine wrote a letter to the Department of Labor expressing the appreciation of the AGMA for the new procedure, explaining that the problem of unqualified foreign artists appearing in the United States when qualified Americans were capable of performing was of extreme importance to the AGMA and its members. The next week, however, an article by Victor Riesel entitled, "Keeping Out The Beatles," appeared in numerous newspapers across the country. The article focused on the complaint of Herman Kenin, president of the American Federation of Musicians (AFM), that British musicians had "started an invasion and were taking box offices and audiences away from American entertainers." The article explained that Kenin and his colleagues were trying to protect the jobs of American entertainers by protesting to the British Musicians Union and the U.S. government. The first paragraph of the article said that Kenin was "rallying some sturdy forces in the U.S. Departments of State, Labor, and Justice to stand off another Beatles invasion." This statement, despite the more detailed information included at the end of the article, implied that the new government procedure for admitting foreign entertainers would prevent the Beatles from returning.

The Department of Labor's press release also prompted another erroneous report by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. The April 17, 1964, issue of *Washington Report*, the Chamber's weekly newsletter, suggested, "An English rock-and-roll group such as the Beatles may never again return to America."

Such reports generated an emotional reaction, particularly among American teenagers, who

wrote hundreds of letters to President Lyndon B. Johnson, Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz, Attorney General Robert Kennedy, and other public officials. In a letter to President Johnson, Rachael McKinney of Lakeland, FL, asked him to "tear up" the ruling. Sandy Cooper of Cincinnati, OH, asked, "Why should we keep good talent out of the United States just because the performers are not Americans?" Janelle Blackwell of El Dorado, AK, and three of her friends claimed that they were so upset about the prospect of the Beatles not returning, that they could not go to school the day they wrote to the Department of Labor. Finally, Marilyn of Clifton, NJ, explained, "Americans groups (most of them) just ain't happenin [sic]."

Teenagers were not the only ones to contact the government. Terry Plumb of Lafayette, CA, wrote to Congressman John F. Baldwin expressing deep concern. He, in turn, forwarded her letter with one of his own to Secretary Wirtz and said, "It seems to me that the Beatles should be allowed to come to the United States as I don't believe they will replace any other musicians. They are quite unique in nature." He added, "At least my two small daughters think so."

All of the Beatles fans who wrote to the government received reassuring responses signed by Secretary Wirtz explaining that he assumed the Beatles would be permitted to enter the United States as they had earlier in the year. His assumption was based on information he had received from one of his advisors, Deputy Under Secretary of Labor Millard Cass. Cass informed Wirtz in an April 13 memorandum that the Beatles had entered the United States in February in the INS's category for "performers with no unique talents." However, their reception on that visit–being met at Kennedy Airport in New York by a screaming mob, appearing on the "Ed Sullivan Show" twice before a television audience of more than 70 million people (the highest ratings ever for a television program), and performing at the Coliseum in Washington, DC–convinced Cass and the INS officials that the Beatles were unique and this time, INS would likely admit them as "entertainers of distinguished merit and ability." This was the case, and the Beatles' application for entry never came before the Department of Labor.

Note about the documents:

The documents featured in this article come from the Records of the Department of Labor, Record Group 174, and are housed at the National Archives in College Park, MD.

Activities

1. Ask students what actions they would take if they read an article in a newspaper or heard a report on the news about a government action that angered, frustrated, or disappointed them. List their suggestions on the board and lead a class discussion evaluating the probable effectiveness of each.

2. Distribute copies of Bonnie Wilkins's letter to students. Inform them that the original letter is at the National Archives and is accompanied by petitions containing thousands of signatures. Ask students to follow along silently as one student reads the letter aloud. Lead a class discussion using the following questions: When was the letter written? By whom? To whom? For what purpose?

3. Explain to students that the letter was one of many received by the Department of Labor in 1964. Provide students with information from the background essay about why the Beatles fans were writing to the U.S. government. Ask students to draft a response to the letter as if they were Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz. Provide students with a copy of Wirtz's actual response and ask them to compare their responses to his.

4. Ask students to imagine that you, in your time away from school, are a concert promoter interested in hiring a popular band from a foreign country to perform in the United States. Explain to the students that you are aware of the Immigration and Nationality Act and that there are certain government procedures that you must follow before you can hire the band, but

you are not exactly sure what the procedures are. Divide students into three groups. Assign one group the Department of Labor, one group the State Department, and one group the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) of the Justice Department. Ask each group to gather information and report back to you about what procedures and forms their respective agency requires of employers who wish to hire temporary foreign entertainers. The following web sites may be useful:

- Immigration and Naturalization Service <http://www.ins.usdoj.gov:80/graphics/services/tempbenefits/ecrd.htm>
- U.S. Code <http://www4.law.cornell.edu/uscode/>
- U.S. Department of Labor <http://www.dol.gov/dol/allcfr/ETA/Title_20/Part_656/20CFR656.2.htm>
- U. S. State Department <http://travel.state.gov/visa;tempwkr.html>

5. Lead a class discussion on the roles played by each of the government agencies in activity 4 and the procedures and forms required by each agency. Ask students for their impressions. Do they think the forms and procedures are necessary? Why or why not?

6. Explain to students what a labor union is. Ask students to imagine that they are entertainers (members of a band, concert pianists, actors, etc.). Direct them to use library and Internet resources to identify a union that serves entertainers of their profession. Ask them to write a one- page description of the union (its mission, membership benefits, dues, etc.) and a one-paragraph explanation about whether or not they would join and why.

7. Remind students that the reason the Department of Labor received so many letters from fans of the Beatles in 1964 was because of the way the press reported the information. Although the press reports never actually said that the Department of Labor was going to keep the Beatles out, they implied that this was the case. Lead a class discussion about why journalists use this approach in reporting news stories. Challenge students to look for other instances of this type of reporting.

8. Instruct students to interview someone who was in their teens in the 1960s about the Beatles and find out what made the group so popular. Invite volunteers to share their interviews with the class.

How to Use This Lesson For History Day Entries

Projects that deal with popular culture, government actions, and/or labor unions lend themselves well to the theme of "Revolution, Reaction, and Reform in History." Use this lesson about the Beatles and the Department of Labor as a springboard for students to develop:

- Performances that depict reactions to jazz music in the 1920s or to Elvis in the 1950s.
- Documentaries about suffragists who protested by picketing in front of the White House or the Bonus Marchers coming to Washington, DC.
- Exhibits that illustrate the Pullman Strike or the working conditions that led to the rise of early labor unions.
- Papers that explore the reforms sought by Dorothea Dix or Progressives, including Upton Sinclair.

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6215 Calle Redonda
Scottsdale, Arizona
April 24, 1964

Mr. Herman Kenin
President
American Federation of Musicians
New York, New York

Mr. Willard Wirtz
United States Sec. of Labor
Washington D.C.

Dear Messrs. Kenin and Wirtz,

In the past few weeks Miss Debbie Page and I have been sponsoring a campaign against a decision made by you. This concerns action you are taking to keep the British groups, especially the Beatles, out of the United States. We have petitions from numerous parts of the country, all stating our extreme dislike and disapproval of your efforts. These aren't just crank petitions, for we have studied the problem carefully, and we realize that we are only minors , and that you hold high and esteemed positions as leaders of the country. But in this case we cannot accept the statement that, "You Can't Fight City Hall". We are going to fight, argue, negotiate, and keep on sending you thousands of names until some action is taken. Please don't just laugh at the petitions and throw them in the wastebasket--- please hear our plea. I'm sure that you had fads when you were teenagers, and just because they are from another country, there is no need to act that way toward the Beatles. We were a little tired of our American singers, and the Beatles are a refreshing change.

We once again ask you to hear our plea, and please let the Beatles perform here--- they're not hurting anybody.

Very Sincerely,

Bonnie Wilkins

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

MAY 4 - 1964

Miss Bonnie Wilkins
6215 Calle Redonda
Scottsdale, Arizona

Dear Bonnie:

Thank you and Miss Debbie Page for sending me the petitions urging that the Beatles be allowed to come back to the United States.

The determination and ingenuity you demonstrated are very impressive. I also note that thousands of persons have signed your petitions. This is a tremendous showing of interest.

The reports that I am trying to keep out the Beatles are absolutely incorrect. I am sorry that this false impression was created by an erroneous newspaper report.

I do not know whether the Beatles will apply to re-enter the United States under the part of the law governed solely by the Immigration and Naturalization Service or under the rules where the Department of Labor gives certain information to the Immigration Service. In either case, I assume the Beatles would be permitted to enter the United States again as they were earlier this year.

You may be relieved to know that, while the Government of the United States is old, it is not run by old fogies.

Yours sincerely,

W. Willard Wirtz

Secretary of Labor

MCass/ah
4-30-64

SIGNED
MAILED

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ECHOES FROM THE WALL:
Conflict on the Home Front During the Vietnam War

Reprinted and adapted from Echoes From The Wall: History, Learning and Leadership through the Lens of The Vietnam War Era Teachers' Guide *by permission of the Vietnam Veterans Memorial Fund.*

The United States became involved in the Vietnam War to contain the spread of Communism, as it had done during the Korean War. Unlike the Korean War, however, the Vietnam War inspired an intense reaction from many Americans. An unpopular draft system, reports and images of atrocities committed by American troops and allies, and daily television coverage which brought the war into people's living rooms all contributed to the growth of the anti-war movement. This reaction helped divide the American people as they had not been divided since the Civil War. This lesson and the Vietnam Veterans Memorial Fund Education web site <http://www.teachvietnam.org> use primary source materials (e.g., photographs, video clips, popular music) to help students understand the breadth and depth of feelings and opinions for and against continued U.S. involvement in Vietnam.

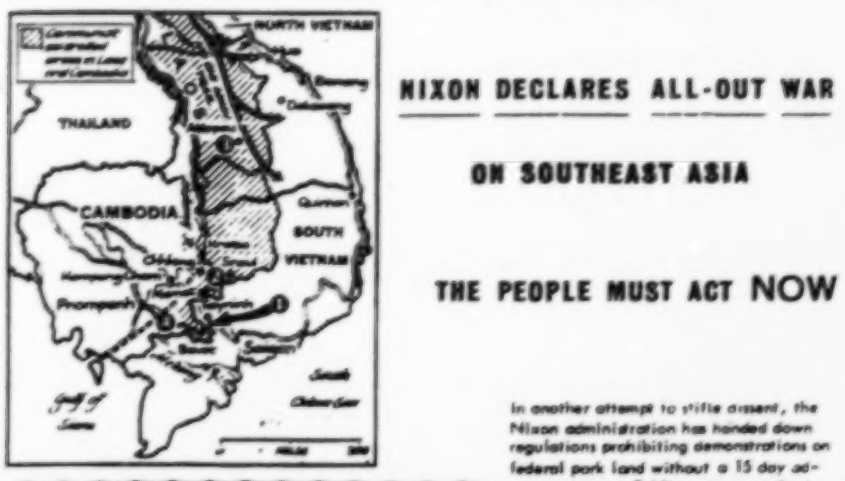
Objectives

- To analyze video clips and popular music to identify how divided the American public was about continued participation in the Vietnam War.
- To evaluate the role of the media and coverage of the war.
- To describe the role of popular culture in both reflecting and shaping public opinion.
- To describe the effect of the turbulence of the era on the nation as a whole.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson meets the following national history standards for grades 5-12:

- Draw upon visual, literary, and musical sources (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Comprehension, Standard 2G).
- Compare and contrast differing sets of ideas, values, personalities, behaviors, and institutions (Historical Thinking Standards: Historical Analysis and


Nixon Sends GIs Into Cambodia
NORTH VIETNAM
THAILAND
CAMBODIA
SOUTH VIETNAM
NIXON DECLARES ALL-OUT WAR
ON SOUTHEAST ASIA
THE PEOPLE MUST ACT NOW
In another attempt to stifle dissent, the Nixon administration has handed down regulations prohibiting demonstrations on federal park land without a 15 day advance notice. Public outrage at the invasion of Cambodia is so great we will go to the White House in spite of these regulations. We will assert our right to peacefully assemble. The police may block us. If they also decide to arrest us, we will maintain a militant non-violent discipline, and options will be provided for those not prepared for arrest. Meet us at the White House!
MASS MEETING
at the WHITE HOUSE
at noon on saturday, may 9
DEMAND IMMEDIATE WITHDRAWAL OF ALL U.S. TROOPS

Poster calling for a protest against the war, 1970. Library of Congress.

Interpretation, Standard 3B).
- The student understands the foreign and domestic consequences of U.S. involvement in Vietnam (United States History Standards, Era 9: Postwar United States, 1945 to early 1970s, Standard 2C).

Materials

This lesson will be greatly enhanced by the use of the VVMF Education web site, where many of the materials listed in the activities may be found, as well as appendices that include background information, biographies, and a glossary. The accompanying VFW history guide provides statistical and chronological information from the Vietnam War. The *Echoes From The Wall* teachers' guide should be used in conjunction with a history textbook.

Preparatic

Have students read about the Vietnam War and the home front in their textbooks or in another secondary source.

Activity 1: What Songs about the Vietnam War Say about Support for the War

Have students read the lyrics of or listen to pro-war and anti-war songs. Have students discuss or write about what the lyrics of these songs imply about popular opinion during the war.

The lyrics of the following songs may be found in the teachers' guide on the VVMF Education web site:
- *Ohio*
- *Where Have All The Flowers Gone?*

The lyrics of the following songs may be found at Lyrics World <http://www.summer.com.br/~ptilho/html/main_ index/index.html>
- *The Ballad of the Green Berets*
- *Fortunate Son*
- *Blowin' In The Wind*

The lyrics and an audio file of the following song may be found at <http://www.countryjoe.com/feelmus.htm>:
- *Fixin' to Die Rag*

Activity 2: Photographic Images of the War

Photographers created some unforgettable images of the Vietnam War which had a major impact on public opinion. Have your students analyze some of these photographs using the Photographic Analysis Worksheet on the NHD web site.

1. Study photographs of the events at Kent State, and ask students for their reaction. The photographs are available at the web site of the May Fourth Task Force at Kent State <http://dept.kent.edu/may4/photos.htm>. How do students think that most people reacted to news of the events at Kent State interrupting television programs or appearing on the front page of the paper? What does the event suggest about the nation in 1970?
2. Study the pictures of the girl burned by napalm, the sudden execution of the Vietcong (VC), and pictures of one week's U.S. dead in Life magazine. The photographs are available at <http://www.wellesley.edu/Polisci/wj/Vietimages/icons.htm>. How do students think that most people reacted to these images interrupting television programs or appearing on the front pages of newspapers or in magazines?

As a follow-up to either of the above assignments, you could have students interview people who are at least in their mid-40s and ask them what their reactions were when they heard about the shootings at Kent State or saw the other photographs. Alternatively, they could research reaction to Kent State in their hometown by reading letters to the editor of the local newspaper. The main branch of the local public library, a local historical society, or a local university library probably will have microfilm or original copies of the local newspaper.

President Lyndon Johnson's policies were the target of many protests. Lyndon Baines Johnson Library and Museum.

Activity 3: Interviewing Eyewitnesses to History

Use the guidelines in the "Oral History" section of the *Teachers' Guide* (module 3, appendix A), which is available at the VVMF Education web site, to locate and prepare for a classroom presentation by an activist in the anti-war movement and/or a veteran or veterans with perspectives and experience with the anti-war movement. Prepare the students to ask questions that explore pro- and anti-war arguments and the effect of the peace movement on society.

If you have time, have two people representing opposing viewpoints (one

who staunchly supported the war and one who opposed it) speak to the students on different days. (See guidelines for locating veterans in the "Oral History" section.)

Have students discuss or write about what they learned from the presentations and interviews. Pose the question, "How is what you heard similar to or different from what you learned from reading histories or viewing documentaries on the subject?"

See also "Teaching Vietnam: Teacher Guidelines for Linking Students to the Vietnam Era" <http://www.wcpss.net/community_in_the_classroom/vietnam/> by Lindy Poling.

Activity 4:
Conflict on the Home Front

The war divided this nation as no other event since the Civil War. Throughout the Vietnam War era, there was a full spectrum of arguments about why the United States should or should not commit troops and resources to fighting in Vietnam. Despite spirited protests, American voters in 1972 overwhelmingly reelected Richard Nixon, who promised "peace with honor," rather than electing Democratic candidate George McGovern, who pledged to withdraw U.S. troops and end American involvement in Vietnam.

Help your students gain a better understanding of the complexity of the issues surrounding U.S. involvement in Vietnam and the depth of passions on both sides of the issue. Here are some suggestions on how you might do this. First, have your students:

- View video clips on the VVMF Education web site of anti-war demonstrations (on the Search page, click on video and 1) type in "anti-war" as the keyword; 2) after viewing the previous results, delete "anti-war" as the keyword and type in "protest").
- Listen to an audio clip on the VVMF Education web site of Richard Nixon's 32-minute speech about the Vietnam War in November 1969 (on the Search page, click on audio and type in "Nixon" as the keyword).
- View video clips on the VVMF Education web site of various participants in the war discussing their attitudes and experiences (on the Search page, click on video and type in "1999" as the date).

After viewing this material, have your students debate the issue, "Resolved: the United States should commit troops, material, equipment, and military advisors to aid the South Vietnamese in fighting their war against the North Vietnamese."

Alternatively, have your students create a mock debate or public forum on both sides of the issue. Each person on the team should research the position taken by the person whose role she/he will play. Ask each student to dress like the person whose role she/he is playing. Spokespersons may include:

Henry Kissinger
Dean Rusk
General William Westmoreland
Robert McNamara
President John F. Kennedy
President Lyndon B. Johnson
President Richard M. Nixon
General Alexander M. Haig, Jr.
Senator William Fulbright
Daniel Berrigan
Jane Fonda
Daniel Ellsberg
Tom Hayden
The Chicago Seven

Activity 5: Create a Documentary about Pro- and Anti-war Demonstrations

Direct students to create a documentary using source materials from the VVMF Education web site about unrest at home during the Vietnam War era.

1. Have students include information about:
   - American protestors' visits to Hanoi;
   - the student demonstrations and related shootings at Kent State University;
   - the marches and protests in Washington, D.C.;
   - draft card burnings;
   - burning the American flag; and
   - demonstrations of support for the U.S. involvement in Vietnam.
2. Have students incorporate popular songs from the Vietnam War era, such as *Ballad of the Green Berets* and *Blowin' in the Wind*, and discuss how popular culture reflected and shaped the divided opinions about the American involvement in the Vietnam War.
3. Encourage students to use source material from the VVMF Education web site relating to unrest at home during the Vietnam War. If the school has audio-visual equipment, students could videotape presentations by veterans and peace activists and use segments of the tape in their documentary.
4. Students may describe the nature and extent of public opposition to the war between 1965 and 1971.
5. Students may discuss the effect of the turbulence of the era on the nation as a whole.

NHD
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